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ABSTRACT

This volume contains papers presented at the Kittamaqundi Conference on the Uncommonly-Taught Languages, in Columbia, Maryland, September 29-October 2, 1974. The volume has two main sections. The first contains papers dealing with conceptual issues of developing materials for uncommonly-taught languages, without extended reference to any specific language. Papers in this section include the historical background of foreign language and area studies research under the National Defense Education Act, a look at the relationship of foreign language enrollment statistics to uncommonly-taught languages, a study of career opportunities and demands for language skills in the business community, an examination of changing trends in schools and the implications for materials development in second language learning, and proposals for adapting existing language materials for specialized purposes. The articles in the second part of the volume recommend priority needs for teaching materials in African languages, Amerind and Creole languages in the Americas and the Caribbean, Chinese, Japanese and Korean languages, Arabic and Persian, Slavic and East European languages, languages of South and Southeast Asia, and Uralic-Altaic and Inner Asian languages. (CLK)

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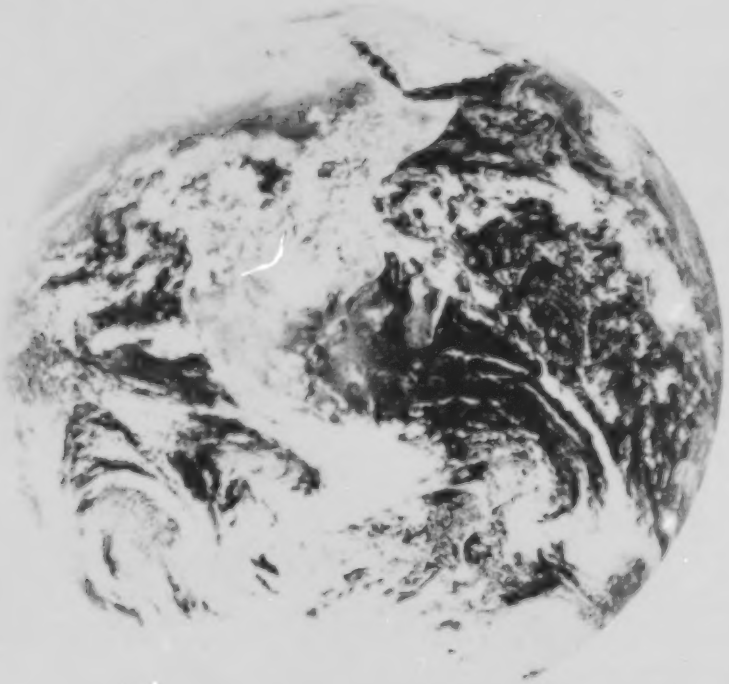
Material Development Needs in the Uncommonly-Taught Languages

Priorities for the Seventies



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a. Under contract No. OEC-300-75-0063, Lawrence Johnson & Associates, Inc., Washington, D.C., arranged for and conducted the Kittamaqundi Conference on the Uncommonly-taught Languages, held at Columbia, Maryland, September 29 through October 2, 1975. (The complete conference report has been deposited with the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) and will be made available through the ERIC Documents Reproduction Service).

b. Under contract No. OEC-300-75-0201, the Center for Applied Linguistics has prepared for publication and dissemination selected work papers presented at the Conference. The present volume is the result of that contract.

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Foreword

The U.S. Office of Education convened a national conference in Columbia, Maryland from September 29 through October 2, 1974 to survey material needs in the uncommonly-taught languages. This conference, which became known by the participants as the "Kittamaqundi Conference on the Uncommonly-taught Languages," (for the name of a lake at the site) brought together a number of foreign language specialists, each representing a major geographical or linguistic area of the world and/or foreign language education, who were drawn from schools, colleges and universities, professional educational organizations, and government agencies concerned with foreign language training.

Several of the scholars who attended the Kittamaqundi Conference had also participated in the Office of Education-supported Fife-Nielsen Conference of 1961 on the same topic, providing continuity and perspective on the contributions of the American linguistic community since 1961 in developing tools of access for what were earlier referred to as the "neglected" languages.

The Conference produced recommendations on current and future priority needs for instructional materials in the uncommonly-taught languages, updating the recommendations of the Fife-Nielsen Conference. The papers of the Kittamaqundi Conference which are reproduced here constitute a tribute to the dedication of the federal government over a period of more than a decade to providing support for research, studies, and the development of instructional materials in this important area of national need.

The Center for Applied Linguistics welcomes this evidence of continuing interest in an area of activity that has occupied its attention since its establishment in 1959. The Center is pleased to have the opportunity to make these papers available to the profession, and to all those concerned with the development of languages/linguistics for international education.

Rudolph C. Troike
Director
Center for Applied Linguistics

1 August 1975

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Welcoming Remarks

Richard T. Thompson

On behalf of the Commissioner of Education, Ted Bell, and Robert Leestma, the Associate Commissioner for Institutional Development and International Education, I am pleased to welcome you to an important national conference. This conference is the first of its kind since 1961, when a small but highly selective group of scholars gathered in a room at the Brookings Institution to sketch out the path which was to eventually bring us to Columbia, Maryland, 1974, some 13 years later.

There have been many changes since 1961. We have changed, the field of foreign language teaching has changed, the needs are changing, the country has changed. As I reread the report of the 1961 Conference on Neglected Languages in preparation for this conference, I was struck by one remark in particular. Austin E. Fife, in his work paper "Tools for the Acquisition of a Second Language" stated:

> It is evident that we shall not in the foreseeable future achieve our goals for the creation of the tools of access for more than a few of the strategic neglected languages.

What does the record show? Since the enactment of the National Defense Education Act, nearly $44 million has provided support for research and studies on 146 separate languages or dialects and produced over 150 basic courses, 130 readers, 57 dictionaries, and nearly 50 grammars--over 500 separate pieces of completed research, studies, and instructional materials. Clearly, major strides have been made toward the fulfillment of the goals, but the job is not done. The size of the remaining task, the capability of American education to accomplish it, the reasonable determination of an appropriate Federal role, and the continued availability of Federal dollars are all factors which contribute toward the eventual completion of the job.

Let me comment briefly on each of these. Your major objective in the next two-and-one-half days is to document precisely and in detail the size and nature of the remaining task. As to the capability of American education to accomplish the task, I have no doubt.

The next factor--the reasonable determination of an appropriate Federal role--is more difficult, since there is a direct link between it and the continued availability of Federal funds.

It is incumbent upon all Federal programs to demonstrate a clear and continuing national need, as well as a Federal role in meeting the need. It is more so the case with small, older categorical grants programs such as Title VI. Let me charge you to pay special attention to developing a reasonable, defensible rationale at each step of your deliberations for a continued Federal role in this program activity.

The last factor is the availability of Federal funds. Inflation at home and abroad, coupled with a demand for increased fiscal responsibility, have resulted in budget constraints never before encountered in the international programs. Funding for research has declined from its high of $4 million in 1960, and while the 1975 budget cycle is not yet complete, at this point it appears that under one million dollars will be available for this activity.

The direction we must take is clear--to develop carefully reasoned, responsible determined sets of recommendations which focus sharply on the remaining priority needs for the development of specialized instructional materials in the uncommonly taught languages.

I wish you good luck in this important task.

Foreign Language and Area Studies Research Under the National Defense Education Act: Historical Background

Julia A. Petrov

In attempting to present a brief history of the Section 602 Research Program under Title VI of the National Defense Education Act (NDEA), it will be necessary to restrict my remarks first to the major developments and most significant activities which have influenced the course of the program during the past fifteen years, and second, with the goals of this conference in mind, to select among these developments those which may have direct relevance to a formulation of statements on language priorities and on needs for specialized instructional materials.

There is ample literature available (e.g., 7, 19, 20) to attest to the efforts and programs in the field of foreign language training which preceded the NDEA in the forties and fifties. Among the milestones are the Intensive Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies (ACLS), launched in 1941; the Foreign Area and Language Studies Program of the Army Specialized Training Program, initiated in 1943; the Program in Oriental Languages, begun by the ACLS in 1952; the Foreign Language Program of the Modern Language Association (MLA), announced in 1952; and the Nine-point Statement of Foreign Language Program Policy of the MLA of 1956.

By 1957, convincing evidence had been collected to demonstrate the disparity between the new and expanding role of the American people in world affairs and the actual capability of American education to provide adequate instruction, even in the major foreign languages. Despite the generous support of the Rockefeller, Carnegie, and Ford foundations, it was obvious that only a major development effort by the Federal Government could be expected to ameliorate the situation.

In the early spring of 1957, the Congress initiated steps to provide the needed support, but it was the launching of Russia's Sputnik I in the fall of that year that provided the decisive impetus.

On August 31, 1958, President Dwight D. Eisenhower signed the National Defense Education Act, which under Title VI authorized extensive support for a foreign language development program with four interlocking components designed to strengthen instruction in modern foreign languages and related area studies in American education.

The Title VI Foreign Language Development Program in its original form called for the establishment of language and area studies centers at American universities; institutes for training elementary and secondary school teachers and advanced students in foreign languages, linguistics, and methodology; fellowships for graduate students of foreign languages and area studies; and a research program, primarily conceived as an auxiliary arm for the other components.

Over the years, amendments to Title VI expanded the centers concept to include other types of undergraduate and graduate programs, added fellowship awards for undergraduate students, and transferred the authority for the teacher training institutes to new legislation, such as Title XI of the NDEA in 1965, and the Educational Professions Development ACT (EPDA) in 1968. The Research Program, however, remained basically unchanged and continues to complement and serve the other Title VI programs.

Section 602 empowers the U.S. Commissioner of Education:

> ...directly or by contract, to make studies and surveys to determine the need for increased or improved instruction in modern foreign languages and other fields needed to provide a full understanding of the areas, regions, or countries in which such languages are commonly used, to conduct research on more effective methods of teaching such languages and in such other fields, and to develop specialized materials for use in such training, or in training teachers of such languages or in such fields.

Probably the first important direct guidance for the Program with regard to language priorities and needed materials was obtained from a 1959 report of the N.A.T.O. Study Group on Asian and African Languages, initiated by the 1958 N.A.T.O. Parliamentarians' Conference at the suggestion of Senator Henry M. Jackson (D., Wash.) (22). Portions of the report were read by the Senator on the floor of the Senate, on June 17, 1959, since, in his opinion, the report showed "how we can bridge the language gap that divides the world" (13) in a practical and realistic manner.

Among other suggestions, the report included, in an appendix, a list of some 70 languages for which training provisions should be made, and it suggested that there might be justification to expand the list further. The Study Group proposed that for the languages listed, the following categories of essential teaching materials should be provided, "as far as they are relevant in each case":

1. An elementary text and exercise book based on the spoken language and designed on modern principles for use in conjunction with a competent speaker of the language or with recorded speech;

2. An introduction to the writing system and, simultaneously, to the written language;

3. A substantial quantity of graded readings up to newspaper difficulty;

4. A bilingual dictionary of the modern spoken and newspaper language;

5. A reference grammar;

6. Graded recordings up to the level of radio-broadcast difficulty.

The Group's preliminary analysis revealed that for none of the languages listed was there a complete set of adequate teaching materials in these categories. (These categories, with slight modifications, have come to be known in the Research Program as "the basic tools of access" to a language.)

One of the first Title VI research contracts was awarded to the ACLS for a comprehensive survey of foreign language and area studies needs and facilities, both

present and future, in Government, business, industry, and education, in order to provide a basis for decisions by the U.S. Commissioner of Education on which languages should be given priority in contracting for foreign language and area studies centers and in awarding National Defense Foreign Language fellowships. The report resulting from this survey (26) considered 90 of the 106 languages then on the list of the "major languages" of the Foreign Service Institute, and in addition, 22 languages which had been proposed by cooperating specialist committees as having relevance to the objectives of Title VI. These 112 languages were grouped into 4 priority categories based upon estimates of manpower needs. A bulletin was issued (March 10, 1959) by the Office of Education, setting first priority on Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Hindi-Urdu, Russian, and Portuguese. A second bulletin (issued June 17, 1959) added another 18 or more languages with priority for development.

The ACLS report also recommended the following most urgently needed materials:

1. A basic course, with materials and tapes for oral practice and such special training in reading and writing as the particular language requires;

2. A set of graded readers with useful content;

3. A contemporary dictionary;

4. A reference grammar, scientifically sound and presented in a format usable by specialists in fields other than linguistics.

Regional conferences followed to provide the Office of Education with assessments of available resources and recommendations for needed studies and instructional materials pertaining to specific areas of the world. The first round of these conferences included one on each of the following topics: Near and Middle Eastern languages (at the Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D.C., Oct. 24, 1959) (8); South Asian language studies in the United States (again at CAL, Dec. 18, 1959) (15); instructional materials needed in the Far Eastern languages (at the MLA, Feb. 26-28, 1960) (25); and the teaching of African languages and area studies (at Georgetown University, 1960) (5). A comprehensive proposal with extensive plans for materials development for the Uralic and Altaic languages was prepared by the late John Lotz under the auspices of the ACLS and presented to the U.S. Office of Education.

Emerging problem areas, such as the publication of modern language materials, and lexicography and the art of dictionary-making, were reviewed and discussed at conferences at CAL in October 1960 (24), and at Indiana University, November 1960 (12).

Meanwhile, as the recommendations of these conferences became available, the Research Program was busy contracting for the development of needed instructional materials to the extent that qualified scholars could be found who were interested in taking on such projects. Materials development, in some academic circles, did not necessarily lend academic prestige to a researcher. At the same time projects were negotiated in the other areas authorized under Section 602, such as surveys of foreign language enrollments, foreign language entrance and degree requirements, teaching practices, as well as experimentation with new teaching approaches, studies in the area of language learning processes, psycholinguistics, and others.

The National Conference on the Neglected Languages, held at the Brookings Institution in Washington, D.C., on March 27-28, 1961, brought together and developed

in a systematized way the recommendations of the various regional conferences. Grouping languages according to three priority ratings, the conference listed some 163 uncommonly-taught languages and language groups that it considered worthy of increased study. It formulated thirteen specific recommendations which expanded and redefined the "basic tools of access," adding as high-priority items: (a) a basic linguistic analysis, so constructed as to be usable also as a reference grammar for an advanced learner; (b) audio-visual materials, considered essential to make basic course materials meaningful to the learner; (c) learning tools beyond the basic level; and (d) annotated bibliographical guides to studies of the language and area. It goes without saying that the Fife-Nielsen Report provided a guiding light to the Research Program for a good number of years.

Toward the end of 1964 the need was felt for a reassessment of the neglected languages situation. The Amendment of 1964, extending the NDEA, opened the way for undergraduate programs in the Language and Area Centers, and, within these programs, provided a stronger emphasis on the broad subject matter which had come to be known as area studies. It was important at that time to develop a sense of what proportion of the Title VI Research funds, if any, should be set aside for developing area studies materials.

Thus, on January 16-17, 1965, another, yet much smaller, conference on the neglected languages was convened at Northwestern University. Eric P. Hamp, of the University of Chicago, drafted the final report entitled "Retrospect and Prospect on the Neglected Languages" (11). It remained unpublished, since it was intended mostly for use by the U.S. Office of Education. Among its recommendations were the following: to move on with the preparation of level-two basic courses and not to give in to an often justified desire to redo existing basic courses from scratch, but rather to use scarce Federal funds for bridge materials to take over the basic course; to place stronger emphasis on the development of specialized bibliographies to fill in gaps; and to consider bibliographies on an areal basis; for instance, coverage of several South Asian languages could be attempted in the form of a single bibliographic handbook.

Still, the need for bilingual dictionaries continued to be felt, and much thought was given to the problem of desirable scope, the evaluation of proposals, and how the time and resources required by dictionary projects could be made compatible with the tight deadlines and budgetary restrictions governing Government contracts. As a temporary solution, it was recommended to explore sources of assistance other than Title VI, conceivably the National Science Foundation or other large funding sources, and to develop a system for recommending dictionary proposals whereby projects would be lodged at universities where experience in such work was already on hand. Since formal courses in lexicography were substantially lacking in the linguistic curricula in the United States, and since the field of lexicography was relatively young in the American tradition of linguistic scholarship, it was recommended to plan to inspect, evaluate, and learn from the projects of countries with a longer tradition in this field. Russia, for instance, had shown much better progress than we had with the problem of turning out a steady supply of bilingual dictionaries.

For purposes of Title VI Research, these deliberations implied that, for the time being, and in spite of the stated need, the Program should go very slowly on funding dictionary proposals.

In the second half of 1965, the U.S. Office of Education began to develop plans for a central source of information on educational research. These plans resulted

in the establishment of the Educational Resources Information Center network, now better known as ERIC. Between June 1, 1966, and November 30, 1969, Section 602 research appropriations were used to support the ERIC Clearinghouse for Linguistics and the Uncommonly-taught Languages, then housed at the Center for Applied Linguistics, and the MLA ERIC Clearinghouse on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. The Research Program, as part of its involvement in ERIC activities, suggested that the ERIC staff commission a series of state-of-the-art papers on the study of specific uncommonly-taught languages.

The commissioned papers included studies by James J. Wrenn on Chinese language teaching in the United States (27), Peter F. Abboud on the teaching of Arabic (1), Gerald B. Kelley on the teaching of Hindi-Urdu (16), and Samuel E. Martin on the teaching of Japanese (18).

In the mid-sixties, several conferences and survey projects that were not specifically concerned with materials development produced in their final reports helpful recommendations on materials needs, as a sort of by-product. These included: the Princeton conference on foreign language and area studies in the United States, held in December 1965, which produced a Guide for High School and College Programs, by Morroe Berger (2); the conference on critical languages in liberal arts colleges, held at the University of Washington in April 1965, [the conference report was edited by Carroll E. Reed (23)]; the conference of African languages and literatures at Northwestern University, held in April 1966 and chaired by Jack Berry (3); and several others noted in the Program's List No.7 (21). Also included are a number of working conferences held in connection with the survey, "Language and Area Studies: East Central and Southeastern Europe" (14).

As the years went by and increasingly more textbooks in the neglected languages were produced (with or without NDEA support), the need arose for a critical survey of such texts, as a service for teachers, researchers, potential materials developers, and, of course, funding programs. A fairly large-scale project was negotiated with the Center for Applied Linguistics, which produced the Provisional Survey of Materials for the Study of Neglected Languages, published in 1969 (4).

In 1969, the Center for Applied Linguistics proposed to the U.S. Office of Education a conference on English bilingual dictionaries. The conference took place on September 8-10, 1969, with many outstanding scholars in attendance (10, 17). A number of the papers were subsequently published in the Linguistic Reporter.

The conferees felt that they could not make any definite statements on two of the six main topics on the agenda: (1) to establish needs, both with respect to the specific languages to be covered and types of dictionaries needed for these languages (e.g., comprehensive, student, scientific and technical, commercial, scholarly, etc.); and (2) to establish relative priorities among these dictionaries. The conferees explained this in the following recommendation: "Recommendations for dictionary projects should be made only in the light of the total situation with respect to each individual language, and this would require a revision of the Fife-Nielsen report on neglected languages. What is needed is a revision of the language classification, which is now out of date, and review of the coverage of individual languages as far as dictionaries and other materials are concerned..." (10).

In advance of the conference, the project staff had prepared a background document listing known bilingual dictionaries in the neglected languages. Evaluative comments by the conferees were added to this listing and sections of the listing were mailed out for further comments to some 200 specialists in the field. This mailing was accompanied by copies of the Fife-Nielsen languages list, with a request

for suggested revisions. The information collected in this manner indicated that the Fife-Nielsen list was basically still a usable document, and that the suggested revisions, in a good number of instances, merely revealed the respondents' preoccupation with a particular language of his concern.

As an internal working instrument, the Research Program staff has maintained a card file on contracted instructional materials in the uncommonly-taught languages and a check chart into which each newly-contracted item was entered by language and by type of tool of access.

This check chart shows that over the years 1959-1974, the Research Program supported work in 146 languages or language groups and contracted for some 49 studies in basic linguistic research, 24 linguistic analyses, 116 level-one and 38 level-two basic courses, a total of 131 graded readers, 49 reference grammars, 57 dictionaries and glossaries, 153 sets of basic or advanced recordings to accompany the printed materials, 26 bibliographies, and 26 language manuals. Supplementary materials which did not fit into the grid system of basic tools add up to some 30 additional items. An additional set of entries noted specialized materials for area studies.

For tangible results of the Section 602 program, List No.7 (21) is probably a dependable reference. It also notes projects concerned with self-instruction, individualized instruction, computer-aided instruction, and other approaches. Since List No.7 went to press (April 1972), some 63 additional reports and textbooks have been completed and another 10 are about to be reviewed for acceptance.

Since the inception of the NDEA, Title VI Research has had its budgetary ups and downs and its procedural problems. During fiscal years 1959 to 1974, a total of some $43.7 million was obligated for research authorized under Section 602. This was supplemented during the last few years by the equivalent of about one half million dollars in U.S. owned foreign currencies. The most prosperous fiscal year, 1960, when the program was put into full gear, permitted an expenditure of over $4 million. More typical years in the late sixties provided an average of about $2.8 million. However, starting with fiscal year 1971, language research appropriations dropped to slightly under $1 million.

In the past, the Research Program accepted proposals in priority areas on the basis of widely-distributed program announcements and was assisted in arriving at support decisions by recommendations of specialists in the field. As of last year, HEW Departmental policies have ruled out the use of assistance contracting. "Requests for Proposals" with precise specifications of the desired product will replace the former procedure. In fiscal year 1974, Title VI Research was granted a one-time waiver from complying with this policy, but for FY 75 no such waiver can be expected. Therefore, the urgency for identifying language priorities and priority needs for instructional resources is obvious.

Over the last decade, Federal research assistance has become available from a number of agencies whose authorities seem to overlap, at least marginally, with that of Section 602. In this connection, primarily the National Science Foundation, the Endowment for the Humanities, and HEW's National Institute of Education come to mind. However, as far as can be ascertained, none of the programs administered by these agencies includes among its priorities the development of instructional materials in the uncommonly-taught languages. In this field, Title VI Research appears to be standing alone, its very modest funding notwithstanding.

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Defining the Task

Richard T. Thompson

At first thought the task before us the next two and one half days may seem relatively simple. As our title claims we are here to determine the remaining priority needs for materials development in the uncommonly-taught languages. After all, we know what these langu ges are, we know what materials we have prepared until now, we fill in the blanks on our matrix and voilá we have our needs. Or do we?

In the beginning of NDEA Title VI, the market was a more narrowly prescribed, monolithic structure than it has become today. Emphasis was placed, and properly so, I believe, in those early days, on developing a minimum national capability for specialists in modern foreign language and area studies for the non-Western world, and the focus was on higher education. The first graduates quickly found employment in the expanding foreign language and area studies centers, but by the mid to late sixties, employment in the major centers was peaking, and as a result many graduates sought employment at international studies centers and programs in universities in parts of the country where little prior development had taken place.

It was during this period that the bulk of the foreign language materials were developed and they were by and for this clientele. To be sure, there were occasional forays into other areas, such as Japanese materials developed for use in elementary and secondary schools, but the predominant orientation of the textbook was the specialist.

You may be wondering what all of this has to do with the task before us the next two and one half days. I believe that if we are too limited in our outlook, we will not produce the kind of statement capable of accommodating the needs of the next decade. We have a unique opportunity before us in this short time--an opportunity to review and assess the accomplishments of the past fifteen years of materials development, as well as chart the future course.

Our task is first of all to determine as precisely as we can what will be the future needs for Americans to know languages; next, to detail the specific goals in accordance with these needs and outline the language learning strategies and training programs most appropriate to achieving them; and finally, to make recommendations for the development of the materials which most closely match the desired strategies and goals.

In our deliberations we should give broad consideration to a range of factors which impinge directly or indirectly upon the tasks. These factors appear at relevant points on your agenda and include such topics as:

1. Language for the world of work. Language courses and curricula in the schools and at the post-secondary levels can no longer ignore the potential value of a program of foreign language study which is concerned with preparing students for a

career other than language and literature or university teaching.

2. Up-dating the list of priority languages. The earlier Fife-Nielsen conference established three major levels of priority, based upon 16 criteria. Are these criteria still relevant? Which languages have shifted in priority, and for what reasons?

3. Materials needs in intensive versus non-intensive programs. The design of many earlier materials focused on level of instruction (elementary versus intermediate) rather than on intensity (summer versus academic year). Future materials should be sufficiently flexible to support a range of instructional intensities.

4. Redefining the tools of access. Changing needs, training patterns, and goals may require expanded or revised definitions of the basic tools of access for the acquisition of a foreign language.

5. Defining materials formats in the light of current trends. For example, individualized and self-instructional programs have clear implications for materials designs. Materials can no longer be exclusively teacher-oriented. A learning or student orientation is suggested.

6. Foreign language enrollment statistics at the elementary and secondary school levels as well as at all post-secondary levels must be systematically collected and analysed to predict trends in enrollments which in turn may affect decisions about needs for materials.

8. Finally, materials must be developed not only for adapting existing teaching materials for other specialized needs, but new courses must also be designed so as to be maximally adaptable to suit a variety of goal-specific needs.

Other topics already have been suggested and more will be identified in the next two and one half days. Interesting and important as all of these topics may be, they should not deflect us from our major task--the explicit identification of the remaining priority needs for materials development in the uncommonly-taught languages.

What Do Foreign Language Enrollment Statistics Show in the Uncommonly-Taught Languages?

Richard Brod and C. Edward Scebold

SECONDARY LEVEL

The following summary of the status of enrollments in the uncommonly-taught languages at the secondary level is based on the MLA survey of 1970-71. A new survey will be undertaken during 1974-75, but its results will not be available until the spring of 1975 at the earliest.

In 1970, 17,236 students were enrolled in uncommonly-taught foreign language courses, a drop from 22,044 enrollments in 1968. (It is helpful to compare this with the total number of students enrolled in all modern foreign languages at the secondary level: in 1970, this figure was 3,514,053; Spanish constituted 13.6%, French 9.3%, and German 3.1%.) The figures represent a rather dramatic decrease. It is difficult to ascertain the exact causes for this drop, but one can assume, for example, that fiscal considerations were present. In 1970-71, the budget crunch in education was beginning; as funds dry up, programs in the less commonly taught languages are often the first to go: even Russian, Portuguese and Italian fit into this category. Other causes of fluctuations include, for example, the presence or absence of ethnic influences within a community that may have an influence on enrollments. For example, there are heavy enrollments in Chinese in California and New York.

Another factor is the availability of teachers. Administrators are often reluctant to add programs in the less commonly taught languages because if a teacher leaves the school it is often hard to replace him. In some areas of the country, such as Texas, this is true even of the commonly taught languages, such as French.

HIGHER EDUCATION LEVEL

An analysis of the enrollments in uncommonly-taught languages at the level of higher education, as reported by the MLA survey, yields at least four factors of significance:

1. Presence of Ethnic Identification

Hebrew is the leading uncommonly-taught language in the U.S. Much of the instruction is in Classical Hebrew, some takes place in seminaries, much is in literature and translation, etc., attesting to an obvious interest on the part of the ethnic group that identifies with that language. The same interest can be found in the case of Chinese and Japanese and also in the case of the even less commonly-taught, such as Polish or Serbo-Croatian. Polish is often taught in colleges in or near Polish speaking communities, such as Detroit and Cleveland, or in a college such as Alliance, which was founded by a Polish ethnic group. This pattern is repeated for other languages, primarily European.

2. The Language Requirement

The trend toward abolition, reduction, or modification of the language requirement for the B.A. degree has had an obvious impact on the commonly-taught languages. It is more surprising to find it having an impact on the uncommonly-taught languages, too, yet this is the case. For example, there is a noticeable attrition in Portuguese, after a decade of substantial growth. In many colleges, Portuguese has the status of Italian, i.e., a minor Romance language that can be taken to fulfill the requirement, and as the requirement erodes, Portuguese will erode along with Italian or Spanish. Attrition of the Ph.D. requirement has affected the enrollments in French and German, which were the traditional languages studied in fulfillment of this requirement.

3. Political Interest

The spectacular growth in Chinese (over 60%) clearly bears a relationship to political events: the greatest spurt of growth came after 1970. The spurt of growth for Russian was in the 1960's, but it has been holding its own since 1970. This is significant in view of the fact that French dropped 18% between 1970 and 1972, and German dropped 13% between 1970 and 1972. The fact that Russian is holding its own is perhaps a tribute to the Russian teaching profession, but more likely a reflection of political interest. It is also presumably a reflection of the requirement trend. Russian is more likely to be elected by a highly motivated student with clear goals and interest in either that part of the world or in acquiring an important language. On the other hand, French and German were the traditional languages taken to fulfill the requirement and have therefore suffered the most.

4. Marginality

Marginality refers to the permanence and ability of a language program to withstand the pressures of cost accounting, etc. If a language is marginal within a college, taught by only one teacher or one-half teacher or by an adjunct, it is likely to be eliminated as a frill when costs rise. The pattern is prevalent throughout the United States in smaller institutions, but the specific language will vary from college to college. For example, in a small liberal arts college in the South, German might be marginal. In California, even French might be considered marginal and only Spanish will be funded.

The problem of marginality affects the commonly-taught languages primarily. For the uncommonly-taught languages the situation is more complex, but it is obvious that for the smallest of them enrollments rise or fall in response to local demand, availability of instructors, and other special factors. Taken as a whole, the uncommonly-taught languages are still on the rise, to judge by the figures for 1972. There was a 30% growth from 1970 to 1972 at the undergraduate level, and a 20% growth at the graduate level.

Analysis of the trends in junior colleges reveals no significant pattern. The emergence of Armenian is observable, clearly an ethnic tie-in; there is substantial growth in Chinese and an even more substantial growth in Japanese. This is in part attributable to the size of the junior college enterprise in California (93 junior colleges) and in Hawaii. Polish has grown well, primarily in inner-city colleges; Portuguese is good; Swahili is in a category comparable to Hebrew, with obvious identification on the part of an ethnic group.

Another interesting factor is the existence of many colleges with only two or three enrollments in one or more of the uncommonly-taught languages. Well over half

of them are participants in Peter Boyd-Bowman's Self-Instructional Language Program. Many of them are in New York State, Pennsylvania, and other areas where that particular language program has become well known.

PUBLIC SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS IN UNCOMMONLY-TAUGHT LANGUAGES
MLA SURVEYS, 1961-1970

	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965
African	-	-	-	-	-
Arabic	90	79	127	97	37
Chinese	158	309	620	1,089	1,353
Czech	16	59	23	85	102
Danish	-	-	-	8	-
Dutch	-	-	-	-	-
Greek, Classical	83	144	70	85	119
Greek, Modern	496	86	94	51	33
Hawaiian	219	180	120	178	238
Hebrew	4,551	4,472	3,501	4,278	3,904
Hungarian	-	-	-	-	5
Japanese	1,131	1,425	1,532	2,486	1,373
Navajo	-	-	-	-	-
Norse	-	-	-	-	-
Norwegian	182	170	94	260	37
Polish	487	586	255	618	580
Portuguese	613	585	675	343	559
Slovak	10	-	-	-	-
Swahili	-	-	-	-	-
Swedish	136	97	98	128	234
Xhosa	-	-	-	-	-
Yiddish	-	-	-	-	-
Unspecified	1,571	-	2,607	1,354	2,398
TOTALS	9,746	8,192	9,816	11,060	11,472

PUBLIC SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS IN UNCOMMONLY-TAUGHT LANGUAGES
MLA SURVEYS, 1961-1970

1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1968	1970
-	-	-	-	-	93	-
90	79	127	97	37	69	132
158	309	620	1,089	1,353	2,096	1,345
16	59	23	85	102	182	265
-	-	-	8	-	-	-
-	-	-	-	-	28	-
83	144	70	85	119	597	186
496	86	94	51	33	30	90
219	180	120	178	238	146	122
4,551	4,472	3,501	4,278	3,904	4,491	1,454
-	-	-	-	5	643	56
1,131	1,425	1,532	2,486	1,873	4,824	8,511
-	-	-	-	-	19	[illegible]
-	-	-	-	-	119	288
182	170	94	260	37	84	-
487	586	255	618	580	462	524
616	585	675	343	659	2,265	1,850
10	-	-	-	-	-	-
-	-	-	-	-	534	1,011
136	97	98	128	234	239	168
-	-	-	-	-	248	280
-	-	-	-	-	9	-
1,571	-	2,607	1,354	2,398	4,866	929
9,746	8,192	9,816	11,060	11,472	22,044	17,236

ENROLLMENTS IN UNCOMMONLY-TAUGHT LANGUAGES IN COLLEGES & UNIVERSITIES I

MLA SURVEYS, 1960-1972

	1960	1961	1963	1965	1968
Afrikaans	6	3	-	7/-	1/-
Albanian	8	5	8	-/2	-/-
Amharic	2	1	7	8/5	2/5
Arabic	525	693	835	661/241	719/307
Arabic, Algerian	-	-	-	-/-	-/-
Arabic, Classical	-	-	-	-/-	31/5
Arabic, Egyptian	-	-	-	-/-	2/-
Arabic, Moroccan	-	-	-	-/-	6/-
Arabic, Tunisian	-	-	-	-/-	-/-
Armenian	20	35	61	30/7	30/1
Ashanti	-	-	-	-/-	-/1
Bambara	-	7	2	-/-	6/1
Bantu	4	7	-	-/5	-/4
Bengali	9	12	12	8/10	1[illegible]/5
Berber	1	3	7	-/-	5/-
Bulgarian	23	34	38	7/1	5/2
Burmese	25	12	19	-/-	-/-
Cambodian	-	-	-	-/-	1/25
Cantonese	-	-	-	-/-	-/-
Catalan	-	-	-	-/3	-/14
Cebuano	-	-	-	-/-	1/-
Chi-Nyangi	-	-	1	-/-	-/-
Chinese	1,763	2,200	2,444	2,553/788	4,230/831
Chinese, Classical	-	-	-	-/-	-/-
Chippewa	-	-	-	-/-	-/-
Creole, African	-	2	-	-/-	-/-
Creole, Haitian	-	-	-	-/-	-/-
Czech	95	192	176	137/21	157/25
Danish	80	90	108	93/-	139/7
Dutch	130	143	172	133/10	142/16
Dutch-Flemish	-	-	-	-/-	-/-

All figures are for the fall semester only.
"/" separates undergraduate from graduate enrollment figures.

ENROLLMENTS IN UNCOMMONLY-TAUGHT LANGUAGES IN COLLEGES & UNIVERSITIES IN U.S.

MLA SURVEYS, 1960-1972

1960	1961	1963	1965	1968	1970	1972
6	3	-	-/-	1/-	1/-	-/-
8	5	8	-/2	-/-	-/-	-/1
2	1	7	8/5	2/5	5/-	6/3
525	693	835	661/241	749/307	904/330	1,367/293
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	9/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	31/5	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	2/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	6/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/9
20	35	61	30/7	30/1	23/19	102/8
-	-	-	-/-	-/1	-/-	-/4
-	7	2	-/-	6/1	8/9	5/-
4	7	-	-/5	-/4	-/1	-/2
9	12	12	8/10	13/5	4/10	12/11
1	3	7	-/-	5/-	1/1	-/-
23	34	38	7/1	5/2	6/11	-/4
25	12	19	-/-	-/-	5/-	5/1
-	-	-	-/-	1/25	-/-	3/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	61/1	24/-
-	-	-	-/3	-/14	5/-	-/1
-	-	-	-/-	1/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	1	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
1,763	2,200	2,444	2,553/788	4,230/831	5,406/797	8,819/1,201
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	12/23	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	78/-
-	2	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	1/-
95	192	176	137/21	157/25	122/32	206/25
80	90	108	93/-	139/7	229/16	174/3
130	143	172	133/10	142/16	279/26	261/20
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	6/1

for the fall semester only.
dergraduate from graduate enrollment figures.

	1960	1961	1963	1965	1968	
Eskimo	-	7	-	-/-	16/-	
Esperanto	-	-	-	-/-	-/-	
Estonian	2	1	5	-/1	4/1	
Ewe	4	5	-	-/-	-/1	
Finnish	20	9	65	34/9	72/4	
Fula	-	-	-	-/-	-/-	
Fulani	-	-	-	-/-	-/-	
Gaelic	-	-	-	-/-	-/-	
Gaelic, Scottish	-	-	-	5/7	-/5	
Gafat	-	1	-	-/-	-/-	
Gaez	-	1	-	-/-	-/-	
Georgian	7	3	4	-/3	-/-	
Greek, Modern	139	293	440	192/25	146/-	2
Gujarati	-	-	-	-/-	-/-	
Gurage	-	1	-	-/-	-/-	
Haida	-	-	-	-/-	-/-	
Harari	-	1	-	-/-	-/-	
Hausa	-	-	19	16/7	32/30	
Hawaiian	50	33	73	92/-	121/-	2
Hebrew	3,779	4,637	5,538	6,081/1,902	7,696/2,196	13,7
Hindi	106	168	177	103/43	187/26	2
Hindi-Urdu	-	-	-	44/60	75/61	
Hungarian	69	78	83	48/26	57/8	
Ibo	-	3	-	-/-	29/5	
Icelandic, Modern	17	33	5	1/19	-/7	
Ilokano	-	4	-	-/-	-/-	
Indonesian	-	-	-	58/8	71/24	
Indonesian, Bahasa	13	-	-	-/-	-/-	
Iranian	-	-	-	-/-	2/11	
Irish	4	2	-	2/-	-/-	
Japanese	1,539	1,976	2,718	2,976/527	3,874/565	6,1
Javanese	-	-	-	2/-	3/-	

1960	1961	1963	1965	1968	1970	1972
-	7	-	-/-	16/-	63/-	50/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	40/-	-/-
2	1	5	-/1	4/1	4/-	1/-
4	5	-	-/-	-/1	-/-	-/-
20	[illegible]	65	34/9	72/4	78/3	132/5
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	16/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/2
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	5/-
-	-	-	5/7	-/5	-/-	4/5
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	1	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	1	-	-/3	-/-	-/1	-/1
7	3	4	192/25	146/-	245/6	364/17
139	293	440	-/-	-/-	7/-	5/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	1	-				
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	5/-
-	1	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	19	16/7	32/30	87/23	72/39
-	-	73	92/-	121/-	251/-	446/15
50	33	5,538	6,081/1,902	7,696/2,196	13,711/2,856	17,886/3,205
3,779	4,637	177	103/43	187/26	237/44	252/77
106	168	-	44/60	75/61	43/33	79/36
-	-	83	48/26	57/8	71/10	66/-
69	78					
-	3	-	-/-	29/5	11/2	1/-
17	33	5	1/19	-/7	14/12	17/9
-	4	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	45/-
-	-	-	58/8	71/24	87/16	86/28
13	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	2/11	-/19	41/29
4	2	-	2/-	-/-	8/2	10/5
1,539	1,976	2,718	2,976/527	3,874/565	6,129/491	7,448/825
-	-	-	2/-	3/-	6/-	-/3

	1960	1961	1963	1965	1968
Kabyle	-	-	-	7/-	-/-
Kannada	-	-	1	1/2	-/1
Kazan Turkic	-	-	2	-/-	-/-
Khalka	2	4	-	-/-	-/-
Kikuyu	-	-	-	-/-	-/-
Ki-Kongo	-	-	2	-/-	-/-
Korean	168	190	182	54/28	64/6
Kpelle	-	4	-	-/-	-/-
Krio	-	-	-	-/-	-/-
Kumanian	-	-	-	-/1	-/-
Kurdish	-	1	-	-/-	-/-
Laotian	-	-	-	-/-	-/-
Lettish	2	-	-	-/-	-/-
Lingala	-	-	-	-/3	-/-
Lithuanian	31	26	22	29/1	-/-
Luchuan	-	-	-	-/-	-/2
Luganda	-	-	-	-/-	-/-
Malay	24	84	99	-/-	-/7
Malayalam	-	-	1	-/1	-/-
Maninka	-	-	-	-/-	-/-
Marathi	1	1	3	-/1	-/1
Mende	-	-	-	-/-	-/6
Metis	-	-	-	-/-	-/-
Mongolian	9	3	38	13/8	11/10
Munda	-	-	2	-/-	-/-
Nanuatl	-	-	-	-/-	-/-
Navajo	-	-	-	-/-	24/-
Nepah	-	3	-	-/-	-/-
Nepali	-	1	1	-/6	-/-
Norwegian	675	712	942	886/-	1,099/4
Papago	-	-	-	-/-	-/-
Persian	62	97	176	73/40	151/30
Pidgin	-	-	-	-/-	3/-
Pilipino	-	-	-	-/-	-/-

1960	1961	1963	1965	1968	1970	1972
-	-	-	7/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	1	1/2	-/1	-/-	-/-
-	-	2	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
2	4	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	9/-
-	-	2	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
168	190	182	54/28	64/6	79/22	84/13
-	4	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	43/-
-	-	-	-/1	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	1	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	5/-
2	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/3	-/-	3/3	3/-
31	26	22	29/1	-/-	2/4	85/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/2	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/1	-/-
24	84	99	-/-	-/7	-/6	-/-
-	-	1	-/1	-/-	-/-	1/2
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/3
1	1	3	-/1	-/1	-/1	2/8
-	-	-	-/-	-/6	-/4	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	35/-
9	3	38	13/8	11/10	13/7	13/7
-	-	2	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/1	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	24/-	147/7	273/-
-	3	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	1	1	-/6	-/-	-/-	9/-
675	712	942	886/-	1,099/4	1,065/19	1,233/15
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	9/-	10/-
62	97	176	73/40	151/30	182/64	212/70
-	-	-	-/-	3/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	22/-	12/-

	1960	1961	1963	1965	1968	1
Polish	539	729	708	483/113	576/80	67
Portuguese	1,017	1,307	2,051	2,631/352	3,650/398	4,62
Provencal	-	-	-	-/-	8/-	
Quechua	9	3	6	5/3	6/3	2
Quiche, Mayan	-	-	-	-/-	-/-	
Rajasthani	-	-	-	-/-	-/-	
Rumanian	23	26	49	-/-	14/6	1
Ruthenian	-	-	21	-/-	-/-	
Samoan	-	-	-	-/-	-/-	1
Serbo-Croatian	149	145	131	93/41	99/110	22
Shilha	-	-	-	-/-	1/-	
Sinhalese	-	-	2	1/-	2/-	
Sioux	-	-	-	-/-	-/-	
Sioux, Dakota	-	-	-	-/-	-/-	
Slovak	26	74	34	16/4	2/-	
Slovene	4	5	12	-/-	-/-	
Sotho	-	-	-	3/-	-/-	
Swahili	22	48	123	118/20	526/82	1,72
Swedish	605	561	705	671/12	1,071/30	1,07
Tagalog	1	-	14	26/2	13/1	
Tamil	3	4	9	13/25	18/5	1
Tanazight	-	-	-	7/-	-/-	
Tarahumara	-	-	-	-/-	-/-	
Telugu	4	7	11	4/2	4/3	
Thai	48	98	102	50/8	59/12	5
Tibetan	13	13	13	18/12	25/28	3
Tigrinya	-	1	-	-/-	-/-	
Tlingit	-	-	-	-/-	3/-	
Tongan	-	-	-	-/-	-/-	
Tswana	-	-	1	2/-	3/-	
Turkish	76	111	106	51/41	73/46	10
Turkish, Ottoman	-	-	-	-/-	-/3	
Twi	2	-	6	3/-	-/1	

1960	1961	1963	1965	1968	1970	1972
539	729	708	483/113	576/80	671/63	903/51
1,017	1,307	2,051	2,631/352	3,650/398	4,623/442	4,369/468
-	-	-	-/-	8/-	-/-	-/-
9	3	6	5/3	6/3	22/-	24/8
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/3	1/2
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/1
23	26	49	-/-	14/6	13/2	31/7
-	-	21	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	11/-	12/-
149	145	131	93/41	99/110	227/122	248/106
-	-	-	-/-	1/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	2	1/-	2/-	-/-	3/2
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	5/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	106/-
26	74	34	16/4	2/-	1/-	-/-
4	5	12	-/-	-/-	-/-	17/-
-	-	-	3/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
22	48	123	118/20	526/82	1,725/62	2,262/60
605	561	705	671/12	1,071/30	1,077/61	1,138/28
1	-	14	26/2	13/1	8/1	84/5
3	4	9	13/25	18/5	14/15	26/28
-	-	-	7/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/1
4	7	11	4/2	4/3	4/3	4/5
48	98	102	50/8	59/12	59/8	65/17
13	13	13	18/12	25/28	38/21	81/7
-	1	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	3/-	-/-	3/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	13/-
-	-	1	2/-	3/-	1/-	1/-
76	111	106	51/41	73/46	102/68	123/63
-	-	-	-/-	-/3	-/5	-/-
2	-	6	3/-	-/1	1/6	20/4

	1960	1961	1963	1965	1968
Ukrainian	59	55	54	59/-	70/-
Urdu	7	7	47	7/10	13/6
Uzbek	4	5	4	-/-	4/5
Vietnamese	38	16	908	14/6	18/1
Welsh	-	-	-	-/-	-/-
Wolof	-	-	-	-/-	-/4
Xhosa	-	-	-	5/-	5/1
Yiddish	13	34	20	4/6	104/5
Yomba	-	-	-	-/-	3/-
Yoruba	23	10	17	15/2	15/9
Yupik	-	-	-	-/-	-/-
Zulu	-	-	-	-/-	-/-
TOTAL	12,099	15,080	19,642	18,654 UG 4,480 G	25,637 UG 5,099 G

1960	1961	1963	1965	1968	1970	1972
59	55	54	59/-	70/-	54/11	73/4
7	7	47	7/10	13/6	14/6	29/13
4	5	4	-/-	4/5	2/-	-/-
38	16	908	14/6	18/1	12/6	30/27
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/1	6/4
-	-	-	-/-	-/4	-/-	-/1
-	-	-	5/-	5/1	-/4	-/2
13	34	20	4/6	104/5	138/119	848/64
-	-	-	-/-	3/-	-/-	-/-
23	10	17	15/2	15/9	110/7	94/3
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	12/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	4/2
12,099	15,080	19,642	18,654 UG 4,480 G	25,637 UG 5,099 G	38,710 UG 5,971 G	50,678 UG 6,956 G

ENROLLMENTS IN UNCOMMONLY-TAUGHT LANGUAGES: LANGUAGE FAMILIES
(No breakdown obtainable)

	1960	1961	1963	1965	1968	1
African	-	-	-	23/23	-/-	
Celtic	-	-	-	12/-	-/7	
Dravidian	-	-	-	-/-	-/-	
Ethiopic	-	-	-	-/-	-/-	
Indic	-	-	-	-/3	85/11	
Malayo-Polynesian	-	-	-	-/-	-/-	
Near East Languages	-	-	-	-/-	-/3	
Oriental Languages	-	-	-	-/-	6/27	
Scandinavian	-	-	-	355/140	374/113	
Semitic	-	-	-	1/70	-/100	
Slavic	-	-	-	20/240	134/191	
Southeast Asian	-	-	-	-/-	24/-	
Syriac	-	-	-	5/25	-/17	
Turkic	-	-	-	-/9	-/3	
Uralic	-	-	-	-/4	-/6	
	0	0	0	416 UG 514 G	623 UG 478 G	

ENROLLMENTS IN UNCOMMONLY-TAUGHT LANGUAGES: LANGUAGE FAMILIES
(No breakdown obtainable)

1960	1961	1963	1965	1968	1970	1972
-	-	-	23/23	-/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	12/-	-/7	-/1	1/3
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	8/1
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/2	-/1
-	-	-	-/3	85/11	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	-/-	-/-	-/1
-	-	-	-/-	-/3	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	-/-	6/27	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	355/140	374/113	-/-	7/-
-	-	-	1/70	-/100	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	20/240	134/191	-/-	3/-
-	-	-	-/-	24/-	-/-	-/-
-	-	-	5/25	-/17	3/35	-/7
-	-	-	-/9	-/3	-/6	2/4
-	-	-	-/4	-/6	-/-	-/-
0	0	0	416 UG 514 G	623 UG 478 G	3 UG 44 G	21 UG 17 G

JUNIOR AND COMMUNITY COLLEGE ENROLLMENTS IN UNCOMMONLY-TAUGHT LANGUAGES
MLA SURVEYS, 1963-72

	1963	1965	1968	1970	1972
Arabic	-	1101	53	12	38
Armenian	-	-	-	-	23
Cherokee	-	-	-	-	6
Chinese	-	122	294	424	745
Creek	-	-	-	-	9
Czech	-	-	-	-	23
Esperanto	-	-	-	40	-
Finnish	-	4	8	6	-
Greek, Modern	-	10	38	22	-
Hawaiian	-	-	-	60	115
Hebrew	-	140	173	744	703
Hungarian	-	-	18	-	-
Igbo	-	-	16	-	-
Ilokano	-	-	-	-	45
Japanese	-	331	369	768	1,358
Korean	-	-	-	-	20
Navajo	-	-	-	58	25
Norwegian	-	78	44	88	114
Papago	-	-	-	9	-
Pilipino	-	-	-	22	12
Polish	-	17	-	2	65
Portuguese	-	32	75	105	195
Sioux	-	-	-	-	32
Swahili	-	-	88	376	568
Swedish	-	-	-	-	78
Tagalog	-	-	-	-	40
Thlingit	-	-	3	-	-

JUNIOR AND COMMUNITY COLLEGE ENROLLMENTS IN UNCOMMONLY-TAUGHT LANGUAGES
MLA SURVEYS, 1963-72

1963	1965	1968	1970	1972
-	1101	53	12	38
-	-	-	-	23
-	-	-	-	6
-	122	294	424	745
-	-	-	-	9
-	-	-	-	23
-	-	-	40	-
-	4	8	6	-
-	10	38	22	-
-	-	-	60	115
-	140	173	744	703
-	-	18	-	-
-	-	16	-	-
-	-	-	-	45
-	331	369	768	1,358
-	-	-	-	20
-	-	-	58	25
-	78	44	88	114
-	-	-	9	-
-	-	-	22	12
-	17	-	2	65
-	32	75	105	195
-	-	-	-	32
-	-	88	376	568
-	-	-	-	78
-	-	-	-	40
-	-	3	-	-

	1963	1965	1968	1970	1972
Ukrainian	-	25	7	9	-
Urdu	-	-	-	-	8
Yoruba	-	-	-	-	3
TOTAL	491*	860	1,186	2,745	4,225

*no breakdown by language possible

Languages for the World of Work

H. A. Merklein

Dr. R.T. Thompson of the Division of International Education of the U.S. Office of Education has invited me to participate in this conference at the suggestion of one of the participants. I have asked myself what contribution I could make. The fact is that I have never taught a foreign language in my life, nor have I ever studied one at the college level.

I do, however, speak fluent German. This, after all, is my native language. In addition, I speak French almost as well as German. Insofar as English is concerned, you may judge for yourselves. If there is any contribution at all that I might make to this conference, it must be in the area of languages as a working tool. Indeed, as the Director of our International Institute, I have always insisted that no student should obtain an M.B.A. degree in International Management unless he is proficient in a modern commercial language.

Therefore, as a result of working daily with foreign language graduates, I have developed a feel both for their level of performance and for the business community's needs for languages. I am aware that this conference deals primarily with uncommonly-taught languages. We at the International Institute primarily deal with common languages, mostly Spanish, French, and German. Yet, I believe that the experience we have had with foreign languages may be relevant to the uncommonly-taught languages that are being discussed here. It may be that some of the tools we have developed might be used beneficially in some of the areas we do not engage in.

When I took over at the International Institute a little more than a year ago, the first thing I attempted to do was to improve the linguistic ability of our graduate M.B.A. students. The first order of business at the time seemed to be to evaluate the graduates coming to us from foreign language departments. These students, all B.A. holders in foreign languages, were our input. Our program provides them with a 50-credit-hour graduate level business program, the equivalent of two years of study. At the completion of their study program, our students should be bilingual M.B.A.'s specifically trained in International Management.

To help in our planning process, we have done two major studies in the past year. Our first study dealt with the performance level and the career outlook as perceived by the foreign language major. The second study dealt with the business community's demands on M.B.A. holders in the field of International Management. In what follows, the results of these two studies will be presented.

Study 1: Career Perceptions of Foreign Language Majors

The underlying question in this first study[1] was as follows: What career possibilities do the foreign language majors perceive to have and, parenthetically, how

do they evaluate their foreign language training at their own universities?[2]

To study that question, a questionnaire was designed and mailed to 560 foreign language majors. The questionnaires were to be answered anonymously, so that any fear of recrimination might be avoided and a more honest answer obtained.

The study covered the states of Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas. For the area concerned, the high percentage of returns assured a statistical reliability of more than 99%.

Following the usual demographic questions (language major? sex? class?), the first probing question read as follows: "Was career objective an important factor in your decision to pursue a foreign language major?" The answers were as follows:

Important or very important	58%
Slightly important	23%
Not important, or undecided	19%

Taken as a group, male students considered career more important than did female students.

A cross-tabulation of the following two questions brought out an unexpected result. The questions were: "List, in the order of your preference, what you would like to do if you were to receive a bachelor's degree in foreign languages today"; and, "Preferences apart, what do you perceive your chances to be for admission or employment in the following categories with a bachelor's degree in foreign languages?" Listed below are the answers to these questions, followed by actual employment data from a previous ADFL study.[3] Number 1 indicates greatest preference or likelihood:

Category	What FL majors would like to do	What they perceive as their best chances	What they actually do
FL Grad school	1	1	2
Teaching	2	2	1
Government	3	3	5
Business	4	5	3
Other grad school	5	4	4
Other	6	6	6

From the businessman's point of view, this is a surprising result. The FL major does not particularly like business (rank 4); nor does he think that he has much of a chance working in business even if he did like it (rank 5); yet, surprisingly, he winds up in business more often than he expects (rank 3). This inconsistency in answers and facts suggests that the FL major's self-professed interest in career objectives is somewhat vague and that his primary goals are out of tune with current job market criteria. This latter observation is borne out by the answers to the next question, asking the FL major for his opinion concerning the annual starting salary of a recent FL graduate (bachelor's degree). Only 18% of the respondents picked the correct range; 68% underestimated their starting salaries; 9% overestimated them. Once again, career objectives are considered to be important, but the majority do not know what salaries to expect.

When asked about the increase in annual starting salary as a result of pursuing a master's degree in foreign languages, students are even less informed: 90% of them

underestimated the relevant salary increase; approximately 1% overestimated it; and less than 5% are realistic in their expectations.

Here is the first result from our study that may have an application to uncommonly-taught languages. If, in the more common languages, students have no clear career perception, then it stands to reason to believe that students are even less clear in uncommonly-taught languages. This suggests the need for the development of data on career opportunities in uncommonly-taught languages. Insofar as the more important of these languages are concerned--I am thinking here of Portuguese, Arabic, Persian, etc.--I have observed from my own experience that there is a great demand for linguistic skills, especially if coupled with a solid business foundation. I have no personal experience on some of the rarer languages.

Another revealing question put before the students read as follows: "Do you believe that your FL curriculum prepares you for a professional career outside of teaching?" This question was added to the questionnaire with some hesitation because of the risk of offending some FL professors. The answers are listed below:

	All Students	Seniors	Freshman, Sophomores, Juniors
Good or very good preparation	44%	36.9%	50%
Average preparation	31%	29.8%	32%
Poor or very poor preparation	25%	33.3%	18%

Taken as a group, the FL majors appear to be satisfied with the career orientation of their programs. However, a chi-square test showed that a significant difference exists between the seniors taken as a group and all other students. Fully 50% of all other students thought that they had a good or very good preparation for a professional career, and only 18% thought the preparation was poor to very poor. The seniors, however, being closest to the "firing line," were less enthusiastic. A little more than one-third thought their professional career preparation very good to good, but another third thought it very poor or poor.

This concluded the first part of the questionnaire dealing with foreign languages as career preparation. The second part dealt with foreign languages in business.

The first question sought to establish what interest, if any, existed among language majors in an M.B.A. in International Management, following a B.A. in a foreign language. The answers were as follows:

Very interested, and interested	53%
Slightly interested	22%
Not interested, or undecided	25%

In view of their professed interest, and since B.A. and M.B.A. programs in combination with foreign languages do exist, it would seem important to get the message of their existence across to the students.

By and large, the FL majors had a fairly good idea as to the number of semesters required for an M.B.A. degree: 43% indicated the correct answer of 4 semesters. They were also very realistic in their evaluation of tuition fees and books which, at the University of Dallas, for example, run around $4,000 for the two-year program. Reflecting present habits, the students overwhelmingly (71%) opted for daytime classes,

while in fact 61% of all M.B.A. classes across the nation are held at night.[4]

As was to be expected, financial assistance in M.B.A. programs was important or very important to many FL majors (64%), but only 1.3% think that such assistance is easily obtainable, as compared with 25.7% who consider it obtainable and 51% who think it might be obtainable under certain conditions.

Answers to the next question were particularly revealing. Statistics on starting salaries confirm that the increase in annual starting salary as a result of obtaining an M.B.A. degree after a bachelor's degree in foreign languages is approximately $4,600.[5] That, by the way, corresponds to the one-year cost of the M.B.A. program at a private institution such as UD. No less than 88% of the foreign language majors underestimated the M.B.A. starting salary, many of them substantially. Given the student's low estimate of M.B.A. starting salaries and their professed interest in an M.B.A. program, their interest would presumably rise considerably if correct salary statistics were brought to their attention. Surely, this result may be safely extended to uncommonly-taught languages.

In conclusion, the study reveals that career objectives are important to FL majors, even if students are not as well informed in regard to their career possibilities as they should be. FL majors also appear to be potentially interested in rounding out their language education with an M.B.A. in International Management, although they may greatly underestimate the M.B.A. starting salary.

The study was intended to answer the question as to where the FL student stands in regard to business careers. What the business community, especially the international business community, thinks of the FL major, with or without an M.B.A., is the subject of a second study.

Study 2: Multinational Corporate Perceptions Concerning an International M.B.A. Degree

At the request of the International Institute of the University of Dallas, this study was undertaken to assess: (a) the U.S. corporate demand for Americans holding an M.B.A. degree with a concentration in International Management; (b) the U.S. corporate demand for foreign nationals holding a similar American M.B.A. degree; and (c) the corporate perception of the value of foreign languages in such an international curriculum.

A mail questionnaire was sent to 1050 corporations doing a significant amount of international business. These included approximately 250 foreign firms doing business in the United States. Returns were received from 275 firms, assuring a confidence level of slightly over 90%.

A demographic profile of the firms returning the questionnaire shows the "average," or modal, firm to fall in the "manufacturing and construction" area, with assets exceeding $250 million, employing less than 24,000 people, and doing approximately 30% of its total business abroad--principally in Western Europe. Slightly over 50% of the returns were filled out by executives directly engaged in international operations, the rest being done by those in personnel or other areas. Fully two-thirds of the respondents indicate they do not hire M.B.A.'s specifically for international assignments, but they did rate an international curriculum as "valuable" (3.2 on a scale from 1 to 5).

Language fluency was characterized on an "important" hiring criterion for international operations, and two-thirds of the respondents indicated that true fluency in one language is more valuable than a fair working knowledge of two languages. Looking again at the larger corporations, as opposed to the rest, indicated that there was no significant difference between them as to the use of language fluency as a hiring criterion. Both used it to the same extent.

Expanding on fluency, respondents were asked to rank in order of importance the criteria used in selecting employees for work abroad. Technical ability was the overwhelming first priority, while ability to adapt environmentally was the second choice. Language ability was a close third choice, with a significant number also ranking it second most important.

This result was reinforced further by the response that foreign language departments do not prepare their students very well in the eyes of the respondents. The modal response fell in the area "poor preparation" with only nine respondents indicating good or very good preparation. No significantly different opinion appeared here between the larger corporations and all the rest.

The next question concerned consideration of the employee's spouse when making an overseas assignment decision. The median value of these responses was 4.2 on a scale of 1 to 5, with 5 meaning "very serious consideration." Nearly 80% of all respondents indicated they consider the spouse when making this decision.

The final questions attempted to assess corporate preferences for potential overseas employees. One question dealt with the preparation of Americans for work abroad, while the final two asked about the value of American-educated foreigners.

Respondents generally believed that an American M.B.A.-holder who had lived and studied abroad would be more valuable to their operation than an M.B.A.-holder who had not had this experience. A cross tabulation of the data revealed a surprising result. Smaller corporations (those with less than $250 million in assets) found significantly more value in the individual who had studied abroad for a year than the larger corporations did. Reasons for this could not be specifically determined.

With regard to the foreigner holding an American M.B.A., fully 92% said they would like to have him for their overseas operation. When asked if they would similarly hire this individual for work in the U.S. headquarters, there was a drop, but nearly 70% still said yes.

Finally, respondents were asked from where specifically they would like to see foreign talent drawn and trained. Western Europe was the first choice by a clear majority. Canada was the second choice, while Central and South America was a close third.

Several conclusions emerge from this study. First, true language fluency is a valuable asset for the individual as long as he also has technical business credentials to accompany his language skills. Second, an American who has lived and studied abroad is perceived to be a more valuable asset than his counterpart who has not, though not as much so by larger corporations. Finally, in addition to the demand for this specially-trained and more widely-experienced American, there is also a strong demand for foreigners who have been trained in America, particularly for work in overseas offices.

In regard to the placing of students, certain uncommonly-taught languages have great appeal for corporations, while others do not. For example, Arabic is at present a language in great demand. We have various students at our University whose native language is Arabic. Many of these are here on a government visa, from Kuwait or from Saudi Arabia, and these individuals are not interested in supplementing their income through work. However, other students from the less developed Arab countries have no trouble at all in obtaining jobs in the Dallas-Fort Worth metropolitan area, while attending the University of Dallas in the evenings.

In fact, some of the companies involved deliberately hire our students with the intention of making them full-time employees upon graduation. This enables the firm to have the student go through an executive training program while still at the University. As a result, the student will know general as well as internal business practices and he will be ready to return to his home country in the employ of an American corporation as soon as he graduates.

With other languages, there appears to be very little corporate demand. For example, we have a substantial number of Thai students who find it very difficult to obtain employment with U.S. corporations, either during their study at UD or thereafter. Of course, U.S. immigration rules requiring their departure 18 months after they obtain a degree makes U.S. companies somewhat hesitant to employ foreign nationals unless they have a very specific slot for them to fill in their home countries.

The Study of Foreign Languages at the International Institute

The International Institute of the Graduate School of Management of the University of Dallas is not fundamentally engaged in the teaching of foreign languages. Our policy is to attract students into our International M.B.A. program who already possess fluency in a commercial language.

It seemed obvious at the outset that the B.A. holder in foreign languages would be our prime candidate. However, it soon became apparent that most foreign language majors with a B.A. degree are not fluent enough to use their foreign language as a working tool. By this I mean that they could not sit at a negotiation table to discuss contractual arrangements or the purchase or sale of a given merchandise without additional language training.

The acid test, insofar as I am concerned, in gauging a person's fluency in a foreign language is what I may call the telephone test. I have used it on occasion with our students, not so much as a means of weeding out the unfit, but by way of picking out the very best students. During a telephone conversation, one communicates with his partner in the abstract. The transmission of ideas is not accompanied by gestures, changes in facial expression, or movements of the eyes. The discussant has nothing to fall back on but his ability to comprehend from hearing alone, nor can he resort to the use of signs in trying to get the point across.

Unfortunately, experience has taught us at the International Institute that FL graduates with a bachelor's degree many, many times lack fluency in their major language. Just the other day I had a student enroll in our M.B.A. International program. Her major was French. When I found out, I asked her a very simple question in French, namely that surely she must speak French well with her degree in French. The answer, coming back to me in English, was, "I see I have to pursue my study of French some more."

On the other hand, experience has taught us that there is absolutely no foundation to the often-expressed opinion that Americans are not gifted in foreign langua-

ges. I have had students from some of the better universities call me on the telephone to find out details about our program. Invariably, if their major is French or German, I will try them out by switching to these languages. I have been very elated on many occasions to find out that these students can sustain an intelligent foreign-language conversation for a long time.

Be this as it may, the majority of the language majors coming for their M.B.A. training do not speak their language sufficiently well for immediate acceptance by multinational corporations. This being the case, the International Institute had to devise a means of providing its graduates with the required level of fluency. In an attempt to achieve this somewhat elusive goal, we have set up foreign study agreements with more than a half-dozen universities in Europe and Central and South America. I have personally traveled to many universities on these two continents to negotiate with them the terms of our foreign study programs.

The idea here is that our students will go to a participating university, such as in Linz, Austria. There they will not take any German language courses. Instead, they will take certain predesignated business courses taught in the German language. At the end of their one-year stay, our students will be subjected to an examination, administered in German, but covering the subject matter of the course such as accounting, marketing, etc.

This provides the required pressure on the student that he needs in order to perform satisfactorily. By agreement, the student who passes the test is allowed to return to the University of Dallas for completion of his M.B.A. The student who does not pass may or may not come back to the University of Dallas, depending on how poorly he did on the test. If he does come back, he will have to accept certain academic penalties, such as taking up another accounting course, for the simple reason that he failed the German-language accounting course.

The successful student returning to the University of Dallas will be given credit for four courses. Thus, in terms of time spent on the program, the student will get credit for one semester, when in fact he will have spent one year or two semesters at a foreign university. Thus, he has lost one semester. But he has gained absolute fluency in his chosen language, and that sets him apart from the other 26,000-plus M.B.A. degree holders that are graduated each year in the U.S., insofar as his career potential is concerned. [6]

Are there any conclusions to be drawn from what we call our externship program, in regard to uncommonly-taught languages? I believe that our externship program can be extended to other languages. I believe also that the maximum benefit will be obtained by the students if they go to a foreign university in much the same way as our students go to their universities. This means that they will not be accompanied by an American professor or advisor. It also means that they will either live in a dormitory or with a native family. In either case, they will be completely submerged in a new cultural as well as linguistic environment. Furthermore, so far as our students are concerned, they are put on their honor not to communicate with each other in English. Whether this honor system works or not remains to be seen, but given the maturity of our students and given the fact that their adherence to this system increases their chances of passing the exam at the end of the year, it would seem that the system has every chance of being successful.

What is the cost of sending a student overseas? Actually it's not particularly high, in spite of increasing air fares. You can send a student to Austria, for example, for $2000-$2200 a year, while Liége, Belgium, runs closer to $2800-$3000.

This is comparable to what a student would have to pay at an American state university, if he does not live at his parent's place.

If my memory serves me right, it costs the State Departments upwards of $50,000 to teach one of their people Arabic. I understand the State Department runs an Arab language center in Beirut. The high cost of teaching Arabic is largely the result of transferring the employee, complete with wife and children, to Beirut where he continues to draw his salary for as much as two years while studying the language. In my opinion there is one thing basically wrong with the approach, and that is the presence of his family. I am convinced that any language can be learned, if pursued intently, within six months. I also believe that a man's willingness to separate himself from his family and to accept this immersion in a foreign culture is a reasonably good guarantee that he will indeed acquire the language.

The latest development at the International Institute has been the introduction of language courses. We are dealing here with students who do not quite have the fluency I would like for them to have, but who for financial or other reasons cannot go into the externship program. If their language performance is already fairly well developed, we put them into a language course for one year, at the rate of three hours per week, where the only textual materials used are things like daily newspapers, annual reports to shareholders, and analyses of foreign operating statements and balance sheets, etc. These courses, then, are in the nature of technical-colloquial language courses.

There exists one fundamental difference between modern commercial languages and uncommonly-taught languages, and that is the certainty of the demand factor. This will be discussed in the final section of this paper.

An Externship Program for Uncommonly-Taught Languages

As an economist I might be forgiven for bringing in the supply and demand question concerning uncommonly-taught languages. In reading the two papers that were mailed to me by Dr. Thompson, namely, the Fife and Nielsen Report[7] and Thompson's own paper[8] on uncommonly-taught languages, it occurred to me that these papers deal primarily with the supply side of the question.

It would seem beneficial if we as a nation developed a reservoir of people trained in the uncommonly-taught languages. However, the great number of languages precludes that they all be taught in the United States. This, of course, was clear to the authors of the two studies cited above.

To come to grips with the demand side of the question I would suggest doing a study both of corporations and government agencies in regard to their need for the uncommonly-taught languages. From such a study there would emerge two classes of uncommonly-taught languages.

The first class would be languages for which there exists a rather substantial need. Portuguese, Arabic, Persian may be examples. A second class would comprise all those languages for which the demand is, at best, sporadic. In the first case a concentrated effort towards the development of teaching materials would be justifiable, whereas in the second case it may not be.

For any language, however, it would be possible to develop a sort of externship program along the lines of our International Institute program. Consideration might be given to moving such an externship program into the undergraduate phase, because there is more room and more time for experimentation.

It goes without saying that the total cost of such a program would be very high. Yet, a study might be conducted to determine whether individual government agencies or U.S. corporations presently in need of certain uncommonly-taught languages might be willing to sponsor a deserving and gifted student on such an externship program. For the corporations, this would be a cost of production and thus a tax exemption.

There are two problems inherent in such a program, neither insurmountable. First, the sponsoring agency or corporation would have to define its language needs two or three years ahead of time. And second, it would have to find a student capable of handling such an assignment and willing to enter a contract that would, in effect, bind him for 3-4 years.

In regard to the student's ability, his past academic performance would be as good a measure of his future performance as can be had. Insofar as the student's long-term obligation to the sponsoring agency is concerned, this could easily be handled by a right of first refusal that the sponsor would obtain in return for his financing of a particular externship program.

The right of first refusal would work as follows: A student returning from a foreign country, upon obtaining his bachelor's degree at his university, would be obligated to state to his sponsoring corporation his best offer. The corporation may then exercise its right to match that offer. In the event a matching offer is made by the sponsoring corporation, the student would assume a one-year, or perhaps 18 months, working obligation with his corporation.

However, to keep the newly hired employee subject to the competitive pressures of the market system, a vesting procedure could be designed that would extend, let us say, over 18 months. Such a vesting procedure might provide that the student may cancel his obligation at any time, provided that he will refund his corporation for the unvested amount of the externship cost. Such a feature would prevent the employee being a captive of his corporation.

I don't know how closely the U.S. Department of Education works with the U.S. embassies through their cultural attaches. But I believe that a network of cooperating foreign universities could easily be established with the help of these cultural attaches. This would involve nothing more than a one-time visit to a foreign university, after some preliminary correspondence, to set up the course content for this particular program. Moreover, the course content could be and ought to be standardized, so that the man in charge in a foreign country would have some guidelines to go by.

The cost to a sponsor would be very reasonable. There is an immediate cash outlay, but this will turn into a cost only if the student agrees to work for the sponsoring unit after graduation. If not, he will be obligated to refund the money to the sponsor.

The program itself is administratively very simple. It is so simple that we as a private university, without any outside funds, can absorb it. In fact, it reflects the results of a great deal of thinking and penny-pinching on the part of many faculty and staff members of the Graduate School of Management of the University of Dallas. However, to avoid confusion, I should add that we do not have the sponsoring provision in the contract that is being proposed here. Instead, our students are asked to provide their own funds for the overseas portion of their education.

It may be possible and, perhaps, desirable from a motivational point of view to have the student contribute 25% or 50%, let us say, towards the cost of the program. With his own or his parents' money on the line, chances are the student will not regard this trip abroad as a pleasure trip.

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2. The first major write-up of this study appeared in the May 1974 issue of the ADFL Bulletin, pp. 9-12.

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Changing Trends in Schools and Implications for Materials Development in Second Language Learning

Dale L. Lange

The purpose of this paper is to show how changing trends in American public elementary and secondary education are affecting the learning of a second language. This task can best be accomplished by first giving a flavor of the atmosphere in which schools currently operate, then describing second language learning within that framework, and finally suggesting, in the form of propositions, the materials needs for second language learning in elementary and secondary schools.

Background to a Changing School Scene

The long war in Southeast Asia, the inability of our government to bring it to an end, and the deceptions that surrounded the whole affair, created among American youth during the 60's and early 70's a skepticism about the institutions of this country. Students began to question traditional values, among them education and schools, and proceeded to set up their own values; anti-war, anti-politics, anti-government, anti-establishment, and anti-school/education.

Student unrest extended even to elementary schools in the 60's, and the public schools attempted to respond to rampant criticism by opening up the curriculum to offer some of the following:

(a) Alternative schools: Free schools and open schools offer students an opportunity to develop their own curriculum.

(b) Alternatives to traditional curricular areas: English and Social Studies continue to be required, but there are new things such as student work programs and career education programs.

(c) A broad choice of interest areas within a curricular area, e.g., Film as Literature, Creative Writing, Women in Literature.

(d) Flexibility in terms of time as related to learning requirements, e.g., modular scheduling, demand scheduling.

Perhaps the most-discussed change in schools within the past decade is individualized instruction. This approach is theoretically based on the learning style of each individual learner, taking into consideration time, interest, and motivation requirements for his specific learning needs.

Many societal changes which have taken place over the past decade have influenced American education. The need for equal respect, opportunity, and employment

for minority groups has persuaded the educational establishment to set up special programs, to integrate schools, to plan new curricula, and to develop the human resources within our society through Ethnic Studies and human relation programs (interpersonal and intercultural) for both students and teachers.

There is increasing awareness of the world outside the particular community, and travel by students abroad has increased in the past ten years. For example, the Minneapolis Public Schools sponsor charter flights for Social Studies and Second Language students every year in the spring, giving students an opportunity to visit countries in Western Europe whose languages and cultures they are studying.

Situation of Second Language Learning in Schools

There is very little solid research on second language acquisition in the school setting that can provide direction or guidelines to curriculum development. The best that we can say, from the research that has been done, such as the Scherer/Wertheimer study (1964) and the Pennsylvania Studies (Smith, 1970), is that "one learns what one has been taught."

With some justification, individualized instruction is presently the rage in second language learning in schools. The audio-lingual approach attempted to deal with second language learning in large groups, in a lock-step manner. This treatment seemed to be neither functional nor effective. However, as with large group instruction, there is a very little verification of the potential of individualized instruction to serve the needs of students. One could probably say at this point that we are in the "first stages of the early middle period of eclectic individualized instruction."

Curriculum materials development is essentially based on an estimate of what seem to be "good" principles of language teaching/learning. The profession is presently divided into camps regarding such principles. There are cognitive codists, educationalists, linguists, literature specialists, audio-lingualists, and eclecticists--all of whom do not agree. It would be helpful to get a group of such people together, to break down the barriers between them, and then to proceed to the development of materials for learning language. Such a step is urgently needed because we are now at the point where we must begin, systematically and carefully, to ask better-defined questions for specific purposes related to language acquisition, testing, teacher preparation, and curriculum development.

Propositions for the Development of Learning Materials in Second Language Acquisition

As a result of the changing nature of schools and education, with only vague and confusing direction in school learning from school managers, we still have to make decisions about what is to be learned as well as how it is to be learned. Direction needs to be given to those needs. The following propositions suggest some directions:

1. Second language learning materials should probably be developed by a group of experts in learning, teaching, culture, and language. Such a team also needs to have a classroom teacher as a permanent member.

2. Second language learning materials should be developed from scientifically based information. Vocabulary frequency lists and contrastive and error analysis studies could supply the necessary scientific data for development of the language

learning aspect of any materials.

3. The development of second language learning materials requires a rational and workable plan. (Many of the published materials from the business world are largely untested when they arrive in classrooms. Teachers know nothing about the assumptions or principles that went into their development.) Such a plan might begin with a review of the statement of objectives. Once the materials have been developed, it would be necessary to study their use through such questions as, how well were the objectives achieved and what was lacking, as well as what needs to be revised. After answering these questions, redesign and retesting would be in order.

4. Second language learning materials in elementary and secondary schools should be directed toward the objective of language use. What do we specifically mean when we say that the objective, for instance, is to develop the speaking skills? Have we designed a progression of steps which are meaningful in terms of the language and its culture and which contain sound learning procedures to meet that objective? Can a learner in fact speak the language according to a predetermined set of realistic objectives? A corollary question might be: Have we developed the teacher's skill to teach those materials which are directed toward using the language?

5. Second language learning materials at elementary and secondary school levels should reflect the motivational and interest needs of students. For example, one of the most popular readers at the present moment in the teaching of German on the secondary school level is a set of readers that was developed in the 1930's. The more recent ALM, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, and McGraw-Hill materials provide little challenge to students in terms of language use. For example, there are very few opportunities to participate in simulated cultural situations.

6. Second language learning basic programs or systems should help students develop an understanding of the process of second language acquisition while at the same time developing basic proficiency in the language. In general, students do not understand why drill is necessary, or why it has been inserted in the learning program. At the same time, teachers also might become aware of the process of second language acquisition. They are not very aware of it at the present moment. Materials could help clarify that aspect for students as well as teachers.

7. Basic language learning programs need to be developed to show an articulated program for learning. The basic student tools of access, e.g., basic texts, visuals, audials, graded readers, dictionaries, supplementary interest materials, all need to reflect care for the relationship to vocabulary, structure, and content already introduced. Also, the tools of access must take into consideration the level of instruction within a materials system so as to take advantage of the learning capabilities and motivation of the student at that particular level.

8. Language learning materials should develop cultural and language concepts concurrently. Pure linguistic content is important, but so is the manner in which the language is used.

9. Second language learning material should have flexibility in format in order to deal with content, as well as organizational and motivational aspects of schools. Published materials are frequently so rigid in format that they allow for very little change, even though variety is a necessity in order to keep language students interested. Provisions need to be made, therefore, for individualized and group practice, group use--that is, situations where language is used for communication within the group. Supplementary activities and materials related to a range of student

interest should also be available, yet they should be connected to language items already learned or to those which are easily developed.

10. Second language learning materials should be constructed from realistic situations where language is actually used. For example, there is little opportunity in learning materials in the elementary or secondary school for the student to express his own emotion. Generally, students come through language learning situations able to mimic some phrases and to get on the right train, hopefully, but they are not capable of expressing fear or anger. Students are not able to use any of the slang. They are unable to understand the different socio-economic levels or styles where language is used. They are unable to understand dialect--for example, half of Germany speaks a dialect that the other half doesn't understand. How is the student going to Germany prepared to deal with this situation? Realistic materials should help him cope with such problems.

11. Development of language learning materials should reflect the current clientele. For example, ethnic groups are pressuring schools for particular language programs. The state of Minnesota, for instance, is drafting a bill for bilingual/bicultural education programs. It is intended to take three different communities into consideration: the Mexican-American, the Afro-American, and the American Indian populations in the state. Where can we find carefully thought-out and articulated bilingual materials from grades K-12? Some work has been done with federal funding, but a true bilingual program for grades K-12 does not yet exist in terms of a well-developed curriculum. Other areas have been left out: for example, the state of Minnesota has a large Chippewa Indian population. Some modules of material were put together recently by the State Department of Education, but there are no materials to develop competency in the language. Tools of access are also lacking, including a current grammar.

12. The training of teachers should be a continual and allied aspect of materials development. Teachers should:

(a) Know why materials were developed;

(b) Know how they were developed;

(c) Know how to use them;

(d) Practice their use;

(e) Be observed in teaching different types of materials;

(f) Know how to add to materials the things that do not exist.

All of the above propositions are based on personal experience with second language learning in schools, and much observation and work with the preparation of materials by both pre- and in-service teachers. They should be discussed not only in the context of change, but also in terms of their contribution to achieving language learning goals.

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Adapting Existing Materials for Other Specialized Uses

Earl Stevick

What I am going to be talking about today relates primarily to the "basic course" tool of access that seems in some ways central, or has high priority, in the teaching of the seldom-taught languages. Having come through many experiences, I have a very dim view of the developing of materials, particularly in the seldom-taught languages. The idea that we can produce permanent materials, or that we should replace the existing materials because they were based on outmoded linguistic theory or outmoded pedagogical concepts, is largely a futile one, for three reasons:

1. To produce new materials is terribly expensive and money is not going to be available for this kind of thing.

2. Inherent vices are sure to appear in these monumental, be-all, end-all materials. (An example: the ACLS materials.)

3. We constantly encounter the "mine is better: syndrome. No one will admit his materials are not the best.

For all of these reasons, our purpose here at this conference is probably not to decide which languages we are going to produce some new basic courses for, or to plan basic courses to replace what was done in the 60's or 50's or the 40's or the 19th century. This would lead to an unending chain of new materials upon new materials, and this is a chain whose next link we cannot now afford even if it were a good idea otherwise.

If we do write new materials, we should try less to make them monumental and try more to make them flexible and adaptable. We should try to lay a solid foundation with a minimum of superstructure. Insofar as any more materials are developed, emphasis should be on making them brief with a minimum of superstructure, and maximally adaptable.

The other possibility is that we adapt materials that already exist. About four years ago I produced a book* in which I tried to lay out some principles for adapting and writing language lessons. In summary, Chapter Three talks about principles of evaluating and analyzing existing materials. I began by listing three dimensions:

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*Adapting and Writing Language Lessons. Earl W. Stevick. Foreign Service Institute, Department of State. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971.

1. The linguistic dimension: inventory of structures and vocabulary, etc.

2. The social dimension: who is talking to whom (Peace Corps Volunteer and a local farmer, two secondary school students, etc.)

3. The topical dimension: what are they talking about (subject matter).

This wasn't very revolutionary. I was trying to isolate these components so people could look at them one at a time and figure out where changes needed to be made.

I also said there were three qualities one should look for in language lessons:

1. Lightness: not being a burden to the student and making him so tired he couldn't go on.

2. Transparency: how easy it is to see what is going on--teachers and students should be able to see how and why the materials are constructed.

3. Strength: the materials will succeed proportional to the breadth in which they engage the student's interest and the depth to which they relate his emotional make-up.

Finally, I suggested four components of a language lesson:

1. Ways in which the student can use the language when he has finished the lesson.

2. Sample of how the language is used.

3. Ways of exploring and becoming proficient in structure.

4. Ways of exploring and becoming proficient in vocabulary.

Chapter Four describes how to write maximally adaptable materials. It says one should start with a very brief sketch of the main elements of structure, written in such a way that they can be read by an interested layman, in one sitting. From this, in addition to the knowledge that the linguistic specialist has, one should develop a list of lexical and structural items one wants to put in. Then one should present the structures with a minimum of vocabulary and in a very minimal but effective way. Actually, of all the sets of materials I've ever developed, the one that I'm proudest of is a set of 5" X 8" cards that have been used by three or four different Swahili instructors. There are about 80 or 100 cards at most. Each card has a few words on it and in the first weeks our Swahili course is taught from this. This is a maximally adaptable and highly successful course.

Having established these very minimum essentials, one should develop lessons in any format at all, whether programmed, dialogue and drill, etc., again working for these four components--a purpose or goal, a sample of the language, and ways of exploring structure and vocabulary.

To return to the concept of "strength," I realized this was the heart of what I was saying in 1971, but I didn't really understand to my own satisfaction what I meant by strength. I still don't understand it as well as I would like to, but I certainly understand it much better now. And I am more than ever convinced that "strength" is the essential thing in the successful adaptation or original writing of

new materials. That is, the thing that determines success or failure is not so much whether it is based on a sophisticated linguistic analysis, or on appropriate pedagogical principles in the usual sense of that expression. What really makes a difference is the degree to which the full resources of the student can be brought to bear on the learning.

One of our colleagues has been telling us that we ought to subordinate teaching to learning. Usually learning is subordinated to teaching, but we ought to turn it the other way around. In other words, whether we like it or not, teaching is subordinate to learning and when we set about, as we almost always do, to try to concentrate on teaching, and subordinate learning to that, that's when we get into trouble. In the same way, materials development is subordinate to teaching, whether we like it or not. Sometimes we try to run it the other way around, and develop teacher-proof, fool-proof materials and then control the student's behavior, and when we do that we get into trouble.

Then, in writing or adapting materials, we must look at strength. Let's take a look at strength, in the sense of potential effects it has on the people in the classroom (including the teacher) on a number of levels of their personality. If you know the terminology of Abraham Maslow, that is what I am referring to now:

1. Level of security or safety
2. Level of belonging
3. Level of esteem
4. Level of self-actualization

At all of these levels, one can look for and plan for potential effects of materials either in adapting or in writing.

There are three people in the world today who come from outside of language teaching who have worked into language teaching as a way of developing and refining and expressing their ideas, who have a gread deal to say to the language teaching profession (including the materials development profession). These people are Georgi Lozanov, Charles A. Curran, and Caleb Gattegno. Each of them has developed his own quite unconventional language teaching method, and their methods are completely different from each other.

Nevertheless they agree on what appear to be three very important points:

1. Learning is a whole-person undertaking. We do not distinguish between cognition and affect, between personality and task orientation, between mind and body, etc.
2. Learning is best done when this whole person is in a state which some psychologists call "regression in service of the ego." This is a state of personality which usually does not exist in language classrooms.
3. "Regression in service of the ego" is a very delicate thing to produce and it requires a very careful balance between authority and freedom.

What I have said about the consensus among Lozanov, Curran, and Gattegno does not imply that in order to teach successfully you must engage in individual psychotherapy

with every student in the classroom. On the contrary, awareness of these dimensions is a help, and provides additional resources for successful teaching; it is not an added burden, it makes things easier. What I have said has very little directly to do with individualization as we have been learning about it and practicing it in the last few years. It's not incompatible with individualization, but I don't think there is much correlation between individualization and lack of individualization on the one hand, and employment or failure to employ these three principles on the other. It has very little to do with "audio-lingual" versus "cognitive code" or even "eclectic" styles of teaching. In the few items on the attached list of books and articles, you will see an insight here and there, but not very much in the way of sustained theoretical reference.

The point of view that I have been describing has implications for the training of teachers, even transient teachers such as you bring to teach for a semester here, or a Peace Corps training program there. It also has implications for development of materials. In a Request for Proposals, for example, we might include the following questions:

1. What resources do the proposed materials provide for guiding the student's behavior? The largest part of most proposals is devoted to spelling out the linguistic and pedagogical details of an answer to this question. But the question also has significance in the "psycho-dynamic" sense, especially as it relates to the very fundamental need for security.

2. Within this guidance, in what ways will the materials allow the student to depend on one another? Such features do exist in many materials, but usually they seem to be either appendages or by-products. From a psycho-dynamic point of view, however, they are essential because of their relevance to the need for belonging.

3. Again within this guidance, in what ways do these materials encourage the student to become self-reliant? In most materials, self-reliance appears primarily as a terminal goal; it is also likely to be limited to use of the language itself, and not to include learning of language. Materials writers often overlook most of the ways in which self-reliance can permeate a language study program from the very beginning. All this is related to the student's need for esteem from others, but also from himself.

4. What opportunities does lesson/unit provide for students (and teacher) to:

   (a) (dis)agree with one another?

   (b) genuinely inform/instruct one another?

   (c) play with one another?

   (d) cooperate in something that they need to do for reasons that lie outside of language study?

   (e) enjoy one another?

   These questions relate to Maslow's levels of "belonging" and "esteem." Questions 4(c) and 4(e) also ask, in Transactional terms, "What's in it for the student's child?"

5. How readily can the material be adapted to correspond to the student's extrinsic reasons for taking the course? Here is the often-expressed concern for modularity and individualization. Psychodynamically, it corresponds to the student's need to feel that the language course is a part of a coherent and satisfying pattern for his life as a whole.

In general, proposal-writers (and the materials-developers whom they represent) give full answers to Questions 1 and 5, but fail to show conspicuous awareness of the psychodynamic aspects of those questions. They give only sporadic attention to Questions 2, 3 and 4.

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African Languages

Carleton T. Hodge and Richard Spears

This paper recommends priorities to be observed in the preparation of tools of access for African languages (exclusive of Africa north of the Sahara) and assigns a priority recommendation to each language. For each language it indicates the priority it carried in the Fife-Nielsen Report of 1961, and in the English Bilingual Dictionaries Conference Report of 1969. The present lists contains some half-dozen languages that did not appear in the Fife-Nielsen list and, in general, does not include the additions suggested by the Dictionary Conference. This is not to say that these (and other) languages are not to be considered for eventual support for research and preparation of materials. The authors have rather sought to restrict the list to present high priorities.

It needs to be emphasized that any language, whether present on the list or not, may be given appropriate priority when political or cultural changes justify such action.

Tools of Access

The tools of access include, in order of priority:

1. An adequate description of the language: This includes a survey of the speech area to determine geographic and stylistic variants. It also includes a student reference grammar.

2. An adequate student dictionary: This should include tone, where relevant, and other necessary grammatical data.

3. Articulated pedagogic materials: In broad terms, these are: Basic Course; Intermediate Course; Advanced Course. These are to provide adequate spoken (and reading, where relevant) control of the language, with cultural understanding.

   The Basic Course is to provide training to the 2 level, in both speaking and reading (where relevant). It should include all common grammatical constructions and enable the student to converse with fluency within the limits of his vocabulary.

   The Intermediate Course is designed to follow the Basic Course, broadening the student's control of both grammar and vocabulary. It should provide materials illustrative of representative aspects of the culture.

   In general, the text matter (dialogues, narratives, descriptions) in both the Basic Course and the Intermediate Course would be written for these

courses. The Advanced Course could include texts from available literature (oral or written). Intermediate and Advanced materials should be organized culturally, with broad coverage, including multiple channels of procedure.

KEY TO CHART

* = national or official language

\- = language does not appear on the indicated list

A = high priority

B = middle priority

C = low priority

1 = high priority

2 = middle priority

3 = low priority

0 = no priority

X = materials sufficient to cancel previous priority

NOTE: Priorities for preparation of tools of access do not necessarily correspond to general priority of the language.

RECOMMENDED PRIORITIES FOR AFRICAN LANGUAGES

	Survey of the Speech area	Student reference grammar	Target-English Dictionary	English-Target Dictionary	Basic course	Intermeciate course	Advanced materials	Priority in Fife-Nielsen list	Priority in Dictionary Conference	Priority now recommended
Arabic										
Mauritanian		A	A					-	-	1
Chadic		A	A					-	-	1
Sudanic		A	A		A			-	-	1
Berber										
Kabyle			C					3	3	3
Riff (Rif)			C					3	3	3
Tamasheq*	A	A	A		A	A	A	-	-	X
Shilha								2	2	X
Amharic								1	1	X
Tigrinya			A		A	A		3	3	1
Somali*		A	A		A	A		1	1	X
Oromo (Gala)	A	A			A	A		3	3	1
Kafa-Sidamo (Sidamo)	C							3	3	3
Hausa*								1	2	X
Fula*	A		A					2	2	1
Wolof*	A	A						3	3	1

	Survey of the Speech area	Student reference grammar	Target-English Dictionary	English-Target Dictionary	Basic course	Intermeciate course	Advanced materials	Priority in Fife-Nielsen list	Priority in Dictionary Conference	Priority now recommended
Temne (Themne)								3	3	3
Mandingo Bambara-Maninka*		A	A	A				2	2	1
Kpelle	C							3	3	3
Mende				C				3	3	3
More-Mossi*	B	B	B					2	2	2
Senari-Suppire	B	B	B					3	3	2
Kru-Bassa	C							3	3	3
Akan								2	2	X
Anyi-Baule		B	B					3	3	2
Ewe-Mina-Fon			B					3	3	2
Yoruba								2	2	X
Bini								3	3	X
Igbo (Ibo)								2	2	X

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	Survey of the Speech area	Student reference grammar	Target-English Dictionary	English-Target Dictionary	Basic course	Intermeciate course	Advanced materials	Priority in Fife-Nielsen list	Priority in Dictionary Conference	Priority now recommended
Efik-Ibibio										
Tiv					B			3	3	2
Sango-Ngbandi*								2	1	X
Zande	B	B						3	3	2
Kanuri	A		A		A	A		3	3	1
Sara	B							-	-	2
Kongo (Kikongo)*						A		2	2	1
Ngala (LiNgala)*						A		2	2	1
Yaunde (Fang-Bulu)	B	B	B		C			3	3	2
Mongo-Nkundo (Lomongo-LoNkundo)					C			3	3	3
Mbundu (UMbundu)		A	A		A			3	3	1
KiMbundu								3	3	0
Cokwe (CiCokwe)					B			3	3	2
Luba (ChiLuba)*			A		A			2	2	1

	Survey of the Speech area	Student reference grammar	Target-English Dictionary	English-Target Dictionary	Basic course	Intermeciate course	Advanced materials	Priority in Fife-Nielsen list	Priority in Dictionary Conference	Priority now recommended
Rwanda (Kinya-Rwanda)*										
Rundi (KiRundi)*	A		A		A	A		3	1	1
Bemba (IciBemba)						B		3	3	2
Zulu/Xhosa (IsiZulu, IsiXhosa)	C							2	2	3
Sotho (SeSotho, SePedi)	C							3	3	3
Tswana (SeTswana)*	C							3	1	3
Shona	C							2	3	3
Tsonga (Thonga)	B	B	B					3	3	2
Tswa (ShiTswa)	C	C	C					3	-	3
Swahili								1	1	X
Sukuma (Kinya-Msezi-Sukuma)	B	B			B			3	3	2
Kikuyu					A			3	3	1
Nyanja (ChiNyanja)		A	A					3	3	1
Makua (IMakua)			C		C			3	3	3

	Survey of the Speech area	Student reference grammar	Target-English Dictionary	English-Target Dictionary	Basic course	Intermediate course	Advanced materials	Priority in Fife-Nielsen list	Priority in Dictionary Conference	Priority now recommended
Ronga	C							-	-	3
Ganda (LuGanda)								2	2	X
Nyoro (LuNyoro)		C						3	3	3
Venda		C						-	-	3
Luo (Acholi-Luo)	A		A		A			2	2	1
Nuer	C	C						3	3	3
Dinka		B	B					3	3	2
Nubian	B							3	3	2
Afrikaans*		A						1	1	
Krio (plus W. African Pidgin)	B	B						2	2	
Mauritian Creole			C					-	-	3
Malagasy*		A	A					1	1	1
Songhai*	A	A	A					-	3	1
Bamileke	B		B		B			-	-	2

Amerind and Creole Languages in the Americas and the Caribbean

Norman A. McQuown

The chart below assigns priorities for the preparation of linguistic analyses and instructional materials for Amerind and Creole languages in the Americas and the Caribbean.

RECOMMENDED PRIORITIES FOR AMERIND AND CREOLE LANGUAGES

	Basic linguistic studies	Basic course	Student dictionaries	Intermediate materials
Araucanian (Chile)	x			
Aymara (Bolivia)			x	x
Black Carib (Belize, Guatemala, Honduras)	x			
Cree (Canada, U.S.A.)			x	
Eskimo (U.S.A. [Alaska], Greenland, Canada)		x	x	x
Guarani (Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Paraguay)		x	x	x
Kekchi (Guatemala)	x			
Quiche Maya (Guatemala)			x	x
Yucatec Maya (Mexico, Guatemala, Belize)			x	x
Nahuatl (Mexico)		x	x	
Navaho (U.S.A.)				x
Ojibwa (U.S.A., Canada)		x	x	
Pipil (Salvador)	x			
Bolivian Quechua (Bolivia, Argentina)			x	x
Ecuadorian Quechua (Colombia, Ecuador, Peru)			x	x
Peruvian Quechua (Peru, Bolivia)			x	x
Sioux (U.S.A.)		x	x	x
Sranantongo (Guyana)	x			
Tlappanec (Mexico)	x			
Tupi (Brazil)	x			

Chinese, Japanese and Korean Languages

John McCoy, Roy Andrew Miller, Ester Sato and James J. Wrenn

In this paper we discuss instructional materials for the three language areas--Chinese, Japanese, and Korean--beginning with a general statement which we believe covers all three languages, and then going on to discuss the materials for the individual languages. Under each of the levels--basic, intermediate, and advanced--we also offer a general statement, where possible, and then go on to state more specifically the needs for each language area at each level.

MATERIALS FOR SPEAKING

Basic Materials

While no one would suggest that our present basic introductory course materials in Chinese, Japanese and Korean for college-level work are perfect, we also think that, given available funds, no one in the field would seriously wish to assign very high priority to redoing them at this time. Many of us might wish that these materials contained a higher level of cultural content, but to a significant degree this lack may be remedied by an effective teacher, and by the employment of supplementary aids and materials. So for the specific period in the future to which we are now giving consideration, these materials will probably have to be counted on to serve as well in the time ahead as they have in the recent past. Some of the deficiencies will be corrected, for Chinese, by materials developed under the pilot project at the FSI, both for basic materials and for those at the intermediate and advanced levels.

Intermediate Materials for Speaking

The intermediate level in Chinese is envisioned as approximately 100 contact hours, plus additional tape sessions. These materials will be composed of appropriate actual conversations or revisions of actual conversations. Dialogues and discourse will be supported by additional grammar and pattern reinforcement drills and exercises. Materials for this level in Japanese and Korean are regarded as satisfactory. For all three languages, new materials are at a low level of priority.

Advanced Materials for Speaking

Advanced spoken material should be based on actual recorded speech in unedited form with notes and vocabulary to help the student. In comprehension materials prepared for this level, students should be exposed to some common varieties of non-standard dialect.

An area which all available intermediate and advanced texts share is failure to grade the student response so that he will move from the sentence-building

phase into a conversation or discourse-building phase. Too often, intermediate and advanced spoken texts are merely more of the beginning approach--more vocabulary, more artificial dialogues, more grammatical notes--rather than a move into extended discourse, two-way conversations of a longer and more natural kind. At present, students who can utter or understand a grammatical sentence still often have trouble uttering or understanding three or four grammatical sentences in sequence. Texts and tapes can be designed to give graded practice in this skill, and with language that is more natural than the sterile conversations of most second and third level texts. We propose the earlier introduction of live conversations, completely unedited, but well annotated, as a method to develop the skills and self-confidence needed in unrehearsed, real-life situations.

MATERIALS FOR READING

Beginning Reading Materials

The basic materials now available present the essential grammar of the languages in such texts as the DeFrancis and Yale texts for Chinese, the Jorden text for Japanese, and the Martin text for Korean. The major area for reworking our materials at this time should be in the reading phase, particularly in the elementary texts. We should stop devoting so much student time to learning to read conversational materials. High-frequency conversational vocabulary does not coincide neatly with high-frequency newspaper and journal vocabulary. Too much time and energy is spent learning to read transcriptions of rudimentary speech instead of simplified written materials. For example, about one half of the DeFrancis Beginning Chinese Reader consists of conversation and dialogues, this in spite of the fact that the companion volume, Beginning Chinese, is designed to teach the conversational phase. This imbalance is reduced slowly but continues throughout the Intermediate and Advanced Readers. The rest of the reading texts are good, and the motivation for selection and repetition of characters is excellent. We still think the Beginning Chinese Reader is the best available, but we would prefer less conversation in the reader, and less time lag between the introduction of a grammatical rule and the appearance of the same rule in the companion spoken text. We still need a genuine beginning reader for Chinese.

The beginning reading level for Chinese should include the essential grammar, about 400-500 characters and 1500 compounds, and should take about 75 contact hours of work to complete. It should be composed of elementary, prepared written texts.

Beginning reading materials in Japanese suffer from the same faults as those prepared for Chinese, but are not as good. Those for Korean still require further examination.

Intermediate Reading Materials

Graded intermediate materials stressing the development of reading skills will have as their goal the task of bridging the gap between presently-used basic materials and real-language materials. Probably their upper cut-off point will be roughly the degree of difficulty of a daily newspaper or periodical. Though these materials will be primarily directed at developing and enhancing reading-comprehension skills, they are best coordinated with an oral component that will also build directly upon the earlier basic materials. All this will be no easy matter to develop, and the preliminary research (basic research in the frequency of syntactic structures encountered in written materials, vocabulary counts, etc.) will be of considerable scope. For Japanese and Korean there are no intermediate texts meeting these requirements.

At the intermediate reading stage for Chinese, Twenty Lectures in Chinese Culture still does a very good job of handling half of the problem. It is an excellent midway text, and it makes a good transition between any elementary text and the mature Chinese as published in newspapers and periodicals.

However, there is a need for a companion intermediate volume in short-form characters having a PRC slant. This should definitely not be an attempt to present the most up-to-date Communist jargon and the most recent political slogans. Rather it should be ten to twenty short lessons dealing with Chinese Communist background materials: the Long March, the Yenan period, land reform, reforestation, party and government institutions, etc. Such a text should be as non-political as possible and still use much of the basic store of terms, names, and concepts which every school child knows in China. The mainland texts and teaching materials are unfortunately very weak in pedagogical method and cannot be recommended for classroom use.

Somewhere at the end of the intermediate level there is the need for updated newspaper readers.

In rough outline, the intermediate reading level text would contain grammar notes as needed, and would require approximately 60 contact hours for completion. It would be based on simplified published materials, and would include about 400-500 new characters of appropriate frequency and about 1500 compounds.

Advanced Reading Materials

At the advanced reading stage a student should be reading unedited materials. We have plenty of good prepared material at this level. For Chinese, there is the reader prepared by Mills, or the Chi materials on Chinese Communism. Also, almost any present-day publication would be suitable with the help of prepared vocabulary notes. Some materials of this type may not even need to be edited.

For the future, we should be developing, especially for Japanese and Korean, but also for Chinese, monolingual reading materials for students in various disciplines (literature, linguistics, social science, etc.), using real language materials with notes, glosses, explanations, and other necessary aids for the student--who may very well be working entirely alone at this time--entirely in the target language. Developing these materials will require bi-national cooperation, but when complete they should go a long way toward answering the needs of advanced students for reading courses in which they will be able to familiarize themselves--but at their own pace, generally on an individual basis--with the most important vocabulary, cliches, and other technical language of their fields of interest.

In Japanese, a similar set of materials in early modern (Meiji) literature would be of great value; presently available Japanese editions of such texts explain what the editor thinks a Japanese reader needs to know about the text, which is hardly ever the same as what the non-Japanese needs to know.

For Chinese, the history reader prepared by Johnson and Wan is a good model. We should also develop monolingual grammatical introductions to, and monolingual annotated text selections from, earlier forms of the non-classical written language, designed to introduce the advanced student to these materials entirely through the medium of the modern written language. Here again the cooperation of Asian scholars with American language teachers familiar with the problems of non-Asian students will be essential.

Monolingual annotated reading materials, as described above, would aim at the same needs that the series of annotated Japanese readings developed at Michigan about a decade ago were designed to meet, but the experience of the profession with these materials has, we believe, pretty well persuaded everyone that bilingual annotations, glossaries, etc. at this level are not only of very limited value to the advanced student, but present a series of problems in preparation that all but rules out effective bi-national cooperation. And this is precisely the field where effective cooperation of Chinese and Japanese scholars with American language teachers is essential both to identify and at the same time to solve the problems presented by materials of this level. A new effort should now be made.

HIGH SCHOOL, PRE-SCHOOL, AND BILINGUAL MATERIALS

For Chinese, the materials by Kai-yu Hsu are adequate for the high school level. For Japanese at the elementary and high school levels, the Learn Japanese series, with its audiovisual aids, is adequate, but could stand revision and resequencing of lessons. Additional reading texts, workbooks, and drill materials are an immediate need. The lack of texts for Chinese on a similar level is noted. We recognize the need in this area and give high priority to such materials for both Chinese and Japanese. However, we also recognize that ultimately the requirements for these materials will be based on community and regional needs that we are not able to assess at this time.

Foreign language education in the U.S. should be aware of the growing movement toward bilingual education in this country. In the past, we have spent untold amounts of time and effort in our schools to eradicate foreign language competence which children bring to school, while spending millions of dollars to train non-native speakers of these languages to an indifferent competence. Bilingual education proposes to build upon the active competence which children bring with them, and train them, by using the language as a medium of instruction from the first grade onward, in developing a full range of language skills. This population, previously largely ignored, will in time become one of the major sources for advanced training programs, both at the secondary and college level, and foreign language materials (and teacher training) will have to take account of this fact. After six years of development, early bilingual programs are already moving toward the level of overlap with junior high school programs, in which native language speakers have traditionally been grouped with monolingual English speakers for instruction which gave no recognition to their pre-existing level of competence. Even where bilingual programs do not exist, this population needs to be given recognition both in materials and in teacher training.

TAPES, AUDIO AND VIDEO MATERIALS

Additional tape courses could well be developed for all three languages as supplementary to one of the present spoken texts. They would require large amounts of recorded spoken material for examination and selection. They would also require a heavy reliance on a phase of material development which has so far been neglected. And for obvious reasons. Language pedagogy even now is not entirely free of the feeling that tapes are only a poor substitute for a native speaker. Few teachers or students really understand that tapes do things which no human can do, such as repeat in absolutely identical fashion for an unlimited number of times. A well-designed tape component should be part of every spoken language program.

As money and expertise become available, more thought should be given to the development of programs containing videotapes and other recent visual materials, both

for classroom use and as additional study aids, and as input media for new material. We recommend that the field follow the work taking place in Tokyo, in Taipei in the Inter-University Programs, and in Taichung at the Foreign Service Institute School.

DICTIONARIES, REFERENCE GRAMMARS, AND OTHER TOOLS OF ACCESS

Dictionaries and reference works for Chinese and Korean are judged to be acceptable, but those for Japanese are written so exclusively for certain types of native Japanese and their cultural assumptions that there is still a need for a Japanese dictionary written for the student. In their preparation, the principles recommended for the development of advanced reading texts should be followed.

For Japanese, in addition, we would like to direct attention to the more specific list of individual desiderata spelled out in the recommendations of the Spring 1969 SSRC Joint Committee on Japanese Studies conference on Japanese language programs and materials. Work has yet to be undertaken on even a single one of the projects urged by that group, which was representative of the entire field.

DIALECT MATERIALS

It is our opinion that Chinese dialect materials do not represent a high-priority item at the present time. Textbooks and dictionaries are available for Cantonese, Amoy Hokkien, Hakka, and Foochow. At some future time, if other priorities are met, we might recommend work on additional dialect dictionaries, with first attention going to the major overseas dialect groups.

CULTURAL CONTENT

All future language materials prepared on every level should emphasize culturally correct language, appearing in culturally correct situations.

TESTING

Finally, criterion tests should be prepared for each body of new materials, tests which will be directed at testing the specific objectives for which they are prepared, in both the production and comprehension tasks which they will be designed to help teach.

Languages of the Near and Middle East (Arabic and Persian)

Peter Abboud, Mohammad Ali Jazayery and Ernest N. McCarus

PRIORITY NEEDS FOR TEACHING MATERIALS IN ARABIC

MODERN STANDARD ARABIC

1. A Comprehensive Student Reference Grammar of Modern Standard Arabic

Modern Standard Arabic is defined as: prose and poetry, written since World War I, including all genres, e.g., essays, fiction, drama, journals, etc. The grammar should cover the writing system and all aspects of phonology, morphology, and syntax. The description should be based on a sound linguistic analysis, but presented in popular terms, i.e., the grammatical terminology should be designed for the non-linguist, using as far as possible familiar terms which are scientifically defined and consistently used.

The grammar should be liberally illustrated, amply indexed with technical terms and words, and fully cross-indexed.

2. Supplementary Readers for MSA

A series of live materials adapted to various levels of proficiency, from upper elementary on. The selections will be taken from original native sources to reinforce classwork and motivate the student to read for pleasure or to seek better understanding of the culture of the area.

The selections will be chosen for content of interest to American adults, with vocabulary or structure simplified to fit the level in question. Such devices as visible glossing of unfamiliar vocabulary and marginal notes will be provided to facilitate reading. The selections will be graded in terms of length and structural complexity.

3. A Comprehensive Survey of Modern Arabic Literature

Covering the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, the survey will deal with all the major writers and as many minor writers as possible, including the émigré poets of the Mahjar. Bibliographical data and ample sampling of their works should be provided. It will survey literary movements and trends, both in prose and poetry, and treat the impact of Western literature on form and content in all genres. Each writer should be located in terms of literary movements and cultural and socio-political context.

It is hoped that ultimately a similar text will be prepared for Pre-Islamic/Classical/Medieval Arabic literature.

4. Chrestomathies of Classical Arabic Prose and Poetry

The chrestomathies should include the Pre-Islamic to Medieval periods, with extensive glossaries and notes.

5. An English-Arabic Dictionary of the Modern Written Language

The dictionary should contain copious illustrations of usage and aids in the proper selection of synonyms, for use by American students and scholars.

6. An Instructor's Guide to the Use of Audio-Lingual Materials

The guide should set forth the philosophy of various oral approaches, provide illustration and explanation of techniques, explanation of each type of drill and its effective use, and indicate how to devise supplementary drills.

7. A Dialect Converter

A manual designed to facilitate the acquisition of a particular Arabic dialect given the knowledge of MSA or another Arabic dialect, via correlations of phonological, morphological, and lexical items (cf. Margaret Omar's conversion of Eastern Arabic to Moroccan).

For the Near East as an area, a similar conversion system dealing with phonology and vocabulary could be provided for Arabic, Persian, and Turkish.

8. Revision of "Elementary Modern Standard Arabic"

Elementary Modern Standard Arabic was developed in 1968 and has been well received both in the U.S. and abroad (it sells over one thousand copies per year). Six years of experience have revealed its virtues as well as its deficiencies; it is now an appropriate time to revise it. The revisions would be substantial, involving revision of exercises, reordering of presentation of structural items, and addition or expansion of a written comprehension component. The present articulation with Modern Standard Arabic, Intermediate Level should be maintained, with other items to be determined by the revision team.

The revision will be done by a team of specialists in Arabic literature, Arabic linguistics, foreign language pedagogy, and Near East area studies; the team should include at least one Arabist who is a native speaker of Arabic and one who is a native speaker of English. A preparatory workshop or conference series will be necessary to plan goals, approaches, plan of work, etc.

The Near East subcommittee feels that revision of EMSA has today the highest priority among the recommendations for Modern Standard Arabic.

COLLOQUIAL ARABIC: EGYPTIAN

1. A Reference Grammar of Educated Cairene Arabic

Phonology and morphology should be covered thoroughly, with special attention given to syntax. It should be based on a thorough linguistic analysis, presented in popular terms.

2. A Comprehensive Course in Cairene Arabic

Introductory through advanced levels, and including sociolinguistic and cultural material. At the advanced level it should integrate "Middle Arabic" materials (for which basic research is yet to be done). It is possible that an existing basic course could be adapted or incorporated for the elementary level.

COLLOQUIAL ARABIC: SAUDI

1. A Reference Grammar of Saudi Arabic

Based on Najdi dialects, but including references to Hijazi and Eastern Province dialects. Intended for American students of the language coming from schools, government, business, etc.

2. Saudi Arabic Dictionaries

Arabic-English and English-Arabic dictionaries of the urban dialects of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, basically the Najdi dialect of Riad, but including regional variants labeled as such. They should contain adequate illustrations of word usage and should be extensive enough to satisfy the needs of Americans residing or working in Saudi Arabia.

3. A Basic Course in Saudi Arabic

An introduction to the spoken Arabic of Riad, with complete coverage of phonology, morphology and syntax, and active control of 1500 basic words related to everyday activities.

ARABIC TEXTBOOKS

The following textbooks are out of print; they deserve being reprinted:

Farhat Ziadeh, A Reader in Modern Literary Arabic. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1964.

Ernest N. McCarus and Adil I. Yacoub, eds., Contemporary Arabic Readers, Volume II. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1962.

Walter Lehn and Peter Abboud, Beginning Cairo Arabic. Austin: Middle East Center, University of Texas, 1965.

PRIORITY NEEDS FOR TEACHING MATERIALS IN PERSIAN

1. Teaching Materials at the Elementary and Intermediate Levels

The major need is a set of integrated teaching materials which can see the student from the beginning through the intermediate level (a total of about 280 classroom contact hours a university curriculum). At present, such a set of materials does not exist. The following list of priorities assumes that the greatest need is for a fully-integrated set of materials, in which the intermediate materials are built upon, and articulated with, the elementary materials. It is also assumed that the lexical items and grammatical patterns to be covered should be determined in a systematic fashion, rather than at random; hence the need for items (a) and (b) below to precede the textbooks themselves.

(a) Inventories of Lexical Items and Grammatical Patterns

Lexical Items: A list of the 3,000 most frequent lexical items in the contemporary Standard Persian of Iran, based on a corpus of approximately 25,000-35,000 words on 20 different topics by different authors, to be listed in order of frequency (and usefulness), with English glosses. The corpus will consist of essays in expository prose on various subjects (primarily social sciences and humanities), short stories, and novels.

In compiling this list, use will be made of a word-frequency count compiled some years ago under the supervision of Professor T. Cuyler Young, as well as of a number of recent textbooks.

Grammatical Patterns: An inventory covering phonology, morphology, morphophonemics, phrase structure, and syntax, compiled primarily on the basis of several major grammars of contemporary Persian, as well as some of the existing textbooks and live speech. Use will also be made of contrastive analysis techniques and error analysis.

The information thus collected will serve as the basis for the basic course and elementary readers.

(b) Detailed Statement on the Difference Between Formal and Informal Usage

A statement on, and lists of, the differences between formal (F) and informal (I) usage covering the following aspects:

(i) phonology, e.g., F/nân : I/nũn/ 'bread;

(ii) morphology, including morphophonemics, e.g., different phonological shapes of verb endings, noun plural suffixes, etc.;

(iii) lexical items;

(iv) syntax, especially word order, e.g., I/ræftaem xunẽ/ : F/be xanẽ raeftaem/ 'I went home' where the word order is different and where the informal deletes the preposition /be/.

The statement should cover both systematic differences and differences involving individual items (particularly lexical items). It will be based on works of fiction, drama, and radio scripts in which the authors use the informal style, as well as on live, natural speech, with some reference to the limited body of descriptive statements available on usage. The statement will be used in preparing the basic course and in providing guides for learners in the use of written materials in conversational situations, and in converting oral language to written forms.

As for the textbooks themselves, the following goals should be achieved by the end of the Intermediate Level (a total of approximately 280 classroom contact hours): (a) ability to carry on simple conversations in everyday situations and some ability to carry on discussions on special subjects; and (b) ability to read, with the help of reference works (especially dictionaries) where necessary; contemporary texts in fiction, social sciences and the humanities; some simple contemporary poetry; simpler Classical prose in the less flowery styles; and Classical poetry, primarily of non-interpretive types.

(c) Elementary Level Text

This text (about 170 contact hours) will have the following objectives:

(i) Mastery of all phonological patterns, the basic grammatical structures, and the writing system, with an active vocabulary of about 1,000 lexical items;

(ii) Oral communication, primarily to establish initial contact with native speakers, and to handle emergency situations. Topics covered will include: greetings, introductions, asking and giving directions; expressions of time; talking about one's family, language and nationality; asking for help in emergencies; handling simple telephone conversations and messages; etc.;

(iii) Mastery of reading mechanics and spelling, through controlled text materials and reading simple contemporary texts, where necessary in slightly edited form;

(iv) Ability to write short passages on simple topics.

The format will consist of dialogues, narratives, oral and written drills, including translation exercises (especially English-Persian), and listening comprehension exercises.

(d) Intermediate Level Text

This text (about 110 contact hours beyond the Elementary Level) will have the following objectives:

(i) Mastery of the remaining (complex) grammatical structures;

(ii) An additional active vocabulary of about 2,000 lexical items;

(iii) Reading and comprehension of more difficult contemporary texts, including longer short stories and more sophisticated social science and general texts, in unedited form;

(iv) Conversation on somewhat more sophisticated topics, including oral discussions of reading selections covered;

(v) Ability to write longer passages on somewhat more complex topics.

The format, in addition to the elements used at the Elementary Level, will include: instruction and practice in using Persian dictionaries; translation (especially English-Persian) of longer passages; writing of longer descriptive and narrative compositions; reading of carefully-selected Classical Persian texts (prose and poetry); and reading assignments requiring increasingly extensive use of the dictionary.

2. Supplementary Readers

A series of live materials adapted to various levels of proficiency, from upper elementary on. The selections will be taken from original native sources to reinforce classwork and motivate the student to read for pleasure or to seek better understanding of the culture of the area.

The selections will be chosen for content of interest to American adults, and with vocabulary or structure simplified to fit the level in question. Such devices as visible glossing of unfamiliar vocabulary and marginal notes will be provided to facilitate reading. The selections will be graded in terms of length and structural complexity.

3. Instructor's Guide

A manual to assist teachers at the elementary and intermediate levels. It should cover various approaches to language teaching, explain and illustrate various techniques, enumerate and illustrate drill types and indicate how to compose and use them, provide guidelines for teachers as to needs for supplementary materials, and touch on other questions relevant to teaching.

4. Specialized Vocabularies

These vocabularies will be designed for use by specialists in various fields (business, politics, history, anthropology, literary criticism, etc.). They are not specifically intended for classroom use.

The vocabularies will cover both individual words and special expressions, with illustrative sentences and special notes where needed.

5. Persian Language Handbook

On the model of the language handbooks published by the Center for Applied Linguistics, with special attention to sociolinguistic matters.

6. Dialect Converters

A statement, with detailed lists where appropriate, on the differences between Iranian Persian and each of the two other national standard dialects (Afghan and Tajik), to enable a person knowing Iranian Persian to learn the other dialects.

The statement will cover phonology, morphology, syntax, vocabulary and the writing system. Where possible, conversion formulas will be provided. Otherwise, lists of items will be given.

Slavic and East European Languages

Charles E. Gribble and Leon I. Twarog

This paper recommends Priorities (A-D) for development of materials in the following Slavic and East European languages (national languages are marked by an asterisk):

*Albanian	Georgian	*Polish
Armenian	*Modern Greek	*Romanian
*Bulgarian	*Hungarian	*Serbo-Croatian
Byelorussian	Latvian	Slovak
*Czech	Lithuanian	Slovenian
Estonian	Macedonian	*Ukrainian

NOTE: Russian and Lusatian are omitted--Russian because satisfactory materials exist, or are likely to be produced, Lusatian because it is of little importance except to linguists, folklorists, etc.

PRIORITY A

Basic Courses

Albanian
Georgian

Reference Grammars

Albanian
Georgian
Lithuanian
Serbo-Croatian
Ukrainian

Dictionaries: Target Language to English

Albanian
Georgian
Macedonian

Dictionaries: English to Target Language

Albanian
Georgian

PRIORITY B

Basic Courses

Latvian
Macedonian
Slovak
Slovenian

Reading Courses (for those who know Russian)

All languages except Czech.

Reference Grammars

Armenian
Bulgarian
Romanian
Slovak

Dictionaries: Target Language to English

Byelorussian
Lithuanian
Slovenian

Dictionaries: English to Target Language

Lithuanian
Slovak
Slovenian

PRIORITY C

Bibliographies

All languages

PRIORITY D

The current status of materials for all the languages under consideration is set forth below under four categories:

(1) No materials exist, or existing materials are almost totally unsatisfactory;

(2) Existing materials are unsatisfactory;

(3) Existing materials are satisfactory, but should be improved;

(4) Existing materials are satisfactory.

Priority D is assigned to languages in Categories (1) and (2) that do not already appear in a higher priority list.

Basic Courses

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Albanian	Armenian	Modern Greek	Czech
Byelorussian	Bulgarian	Serbo-Croatian	Estonian
Georgian	Lithuanian		Polish
Latvian	Ukrainian (2 in progress)		Romanian
Macedonian			
Slovak			
Slovenian			

Reference Grammars

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Albanian	Macedonian		Czech
Armenian			Estonian
Bulgarian			Modern Greek
Byelorussian			Hungarian
Georgian			Polish
Latvian (in progress)			
Lithuanian			
Romanian			
Serbo-Croatian			
Slovak			
Slovenian (done in ms?)			
Ukrainian			

Dictionaries: Target Language to English

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Albanian	Czech	Armenian	Greek
Byelorussian	Latvian	Bulgarian	Polish
Georgian	Slovak	Estonian	Ukrainian
Lithuanian		Hungarian	
Macedonian		Romanian	
Slovenian		Serbo-Croatian	

Dictionaries: English to Target Language

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Albanian	Armenian	Bulgarian	Modern Greek
Byelorussian	Czech	Estonian	Polish
Georgian	Latvian	Hungarian	Ukrainian
Lithuanian	Romanian		
Macedonian	Serbo-Croatian		
	Slovak		
	Slovenian		

Bibliographies

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
All languages			

Basic Courses (for those who know Russian)

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
All Slavic languages			

Reading Courses

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
All languages			

Reading Courses (for those who know Russian)

(1)	(2) or (3)	(4)
All languages except Czech	Czech	

Second Year Texts

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
All languages			

Secondary School Materials

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
All languages except Polish		Polish	

Cultural Materials and Readers for Secondary Schools

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
All languages			

Contrastive Analyses

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
All languages			

Work is in progress on Polish, Serbo-Croatian, and Hungarian; some of the results have been published for Polish and Serbo-Croatian.

Word Counts

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
All languages			

Standardized Tests

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
All languages except Polish			Polish

Readers: Level 1

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Albanian	Lithuanian		Armenian
Bulgarian	Serbo-Croatian		Estonian
Byelorussian			Modern Greek
Czech			Hungarian
Georgian			Polish
Latvian			Romanian
Macedonian			
Slovak			
Slovenian			
Ukrainian			

Readers: Level 2

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Albanian		Bulgarian	Armenian
Byelorussian		Romanian	Czech
Georgian			Estonian
Latvian			Modern Greek
Lithuanian			Hungarian
Slovak			Macedonian
Slovenian			Polish
Ukrainian			

Languages of South Asia

M.A.R. Barker and James W. Gair

The objectives of this report are twofold: (1) to list the major languages of South Asia (i.e., India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Nepal, and certain minor adjacent areas) in order of importance or priority for American learners; and (2) to make recommendations of further needs and materials--tools of access, teaching materials, or whatever one chooses to call them--for certain of these languages.

The authors of this report generally accept the criteria enunciated at this Conference for the division into priority classifications of the uncommonly-taught languages. If considered in the light of the criterion of number of speakers, a great many of the languages of our area of concern fall into the category of highly important--including many minor languages which were dropped from consideration here for other reasons. Similarly, in terms of political significance, certain languages are seen at once to be of national importance, others to be spoken in areas which may well become centers of political/commercial/economic dynamism, and a great many others do not fit under these criteria. There is a further criterion which applies specifically to South Asia (as well as to certain other world regions) which is implicit in the above but which requires further statement, i.e., the criterion of national and/or regional recognition of certain languages. Here we distinguish between national languages, officially recognized regional languages, larger (or otherwise more significant) non-recognized languages, and all other minor languages.

National or "union" languages are:

India:	Hindi
Bangladesh:	Bengali
Pakistan:	Urdu
Sri Lanka:	Sinhala
Nepal:	Nepali
Maldive Is.:	Divehi

Major officially recognized regional languages of India are (in alphabetical order):

Assamese	Marathi
Bengali	Oriya
Gujarati	Panjabi
Kannada	Sindhi
Kashmiri	Tamil
Malayalam	Telugu

Sanskrit is also an officially recognized language of the Indian constitution, but we are restricting our survey to modern spoken languages.

The major officially recognized regional languages of Pakistan are (in alphabetical order):

Balochi
Brahui
Panjabi
Pashto
Sindhi

Tamil is similarly recognized as a major regional language of Sri Lanka.

An inspection of the above lists reveals that certain of these languages are spoken in more than one national area. In some of these cases, however, there are clear varietal differences correlating with national boundaries.

We believe that the national languages listed above are of the highest priority (depending, of course, upon the relative size, economic importance, etc., of the countries of the region). We thus consider Hindi, Bengali, and Urdu to be of the highest priority, with Sinhala and Nepali coming next, and Divehi falling last.

With regard to the officially recognized regional languages within these countries, it is difficult to establish priorities on anything other than impressionistic grounds at present. Thus, the authors of the present report feel on such grounds that Tamil, Bengali, and Marathi rate somewhat above the other regional languages of India in terms of priorities, as do Sindhi, Panjabi, and Pashto for Pakistan, but our colleagues may well disagree, and we know of no easy method of documenting our choices.

Turning now to the problem of availability and adequacy of the tools of access for the above-listed languages, we first take up the national languages:

Hindi: This language has the largest enrollment and the greatest demand of any of those of our area of concern. It is absolutely imperative that an articulated set of teaching materials for Hindi be produced and be kept in print. Present teaching materials are somewhat spotty in coverage. Basic course materials exist and are available, but there is much dissatisfaction with them. An elementary reader is also available and articulates with the basic course sets. Intermediate and advanced readers are less satisfactory and are out of print. These are limited in scope. Only a rudimentary student's reference grammar is found, and there are no adequate dictionaries. In short, though materials do exist for this language more than for others, a really good, articulated set of materials covering elementary through advanced levels is still an important desideratum.

Urdu: The basic text is out of print. The newspaper reader has only recently received an offer of republication. Intermediate and advanced readers are mostly available and in print. No really satisfactory modern bilingual dictionary is found, however.

Bengali: The basic text is either out of print or rapidly approaching it, with little likelihood of republication. Intermediate readers exist, but their availability is uncertain. A reference grammar is listed, but again its availability is uncertain. Bengali is one of the few languages, however, for which there is a

language handbook. There is at least one advanced literary reader. The present series is non-articulated and badly needs further development, considering the importance of the language.

Sinhala: A basic course exists and is available, as does a colloquial reader articulated with it. A beginning literary text has just appeared. There is no reference grammar or any adequate dictionary. This language is therefore fairly well provided with materials at the first and second stages, but there is nothing in the way of upper-intermediate or advanced materials.

Nepali: A somewhat traditional introductory text exists with some supplementary materials, and a new basic text has recently appeared, although the authors of this report have not yet seen it. Beyond this we know of nothing of real importance, except for Turner's monumental dictionary, which is however geared more towards philology than towards student use. We are therefore still badly in need of materials beyond the elementary stages of Nepali.

Maldivian: No modern materials exist of any kind. Although Divehi is a national language, the priority here would be relatively low compared to the others above, and perhaps would be low compared to some of the larger regional languages of the area.

We now take up the list of regional languages of India.

Assamese: No materials of any kind are available. Some materials for this language are thus a desideratum.

Bengali: See above.

Gujarati: There is an NDEA-sponsored reference grammar of an advanced nature for Gujarati; otherwise we know of no available modern materials for this language.

Kashmiri: This language has an articulated basic course and a student's reference grammar. Otherwise no modern materials are available.

Malayalam: No available modern materials.

Marathi: There is a basic text, and we understand that supplementary materials are in preparation. There is a reader, but its availability and level are unknown to us. In short, this is one of the more important of the regional languages, and a set of materials is desirable.

Oriya: A recent set of materials has been produced. These are articulated and lead from the elementary to the advanced reading level. This language is thus comparatively well provided for at present.

Panjabi: There is a brief basic course and a reference grammar. A reader was produced with NDEA support but is not available. This language spans two countries, and yet the materials for it are minimal at best.

Sindhi: No available modern materials exist (as known to us). This language again is found in two South Asian countries, and some materials are thus a desideratum.

Tamil: This language is clearly among the more important regional cultural languages of India and exten s into Sri Lanka. Although materials have been produced, there is no availa.le and adequate basic course. There are advanced conversational materials, but none leading to them. There is an advanced reader with a similar lack of bridges to it from the elementary level. Reference grammars and adequate student dictionaries are lacking. An articulated set of materials for this language is of quite high priority among the regional languages of the area.

Telugu: The fullest set of basic materials is currently out of print. There is an intermediate and a newspaper reader. A reference grammar and modern dictionary are lacking. Attention should be paid to the availability of materials for this quite important language and to the augmenting of those so far produced to form a usable articulated set.

Kannada: Basic materials for the first course exist. The availability of the intermediate-advanced reader is uncertain. There is a quite advanced literary reader. In order to form an articulated series, however, certain gaps remain to be filled. There is no student's reference grammar or modern dictionary.

Turning to the regional languages of Pakistan, we find:

Balochi: A basic course exists and is in print. No further modern materials are available.

Brahui: No modern materials exist for this language.

Panjabi: See above. It is to be noted that the variety of Panjabi used in Pakistan differs from that found in India, and a different script is employed.

Pashto: An articulated basic course, an introduction to the writing system, and a reader exist but may no longer be available. A grammar exists, but is not aimed at the student. No modern student's dictionary exists. It may be noted that this language is also bi-national, extending into Afghanistan.

Sindhi: See above. Like Panjabi, a different variety and a different script are employed for Pakistani Sindhi as opposed to the Indian variety. No modern materials for either form are found.

Tamil is also found as a regional language of Sri Lanka. The literary variety is only minimally different from that found in India, but the spoken language is sharply divergent. No available materials exist for the latter. However, a quite comprehensive, modern basic course has just been produced in Sri Lanka, but is not yet available for use.

As a general statement, it must be added that almost all of the languages listed above lack one or more of the items determined by the Conference as being important for a minimal articulated set. None have conversational materials past the elementary level, and such materials for any of these languages are a priority item, providing that the elementary materials necessary to lay a foundation for them exist. This is important not only for these languages but for language teaching in general, since we badly need models for this type of material. This is generally outside of our area of concern as well.

Adequate reference grammars suitable for use by a learner are virtually non-existent. The same is true of dictionaries. These again should be high-priority

items for any language, providing that a basic course and related articulated readers exist. Audiovisual materials, except those accompanying some of the basic materials above (tapes, and in one case slides) are similarly non-existent, and development and innovation in this direction are badly needed. Specialized readers, with the exception of some literary readers and a few newspaper readers (which tend to become obsolete quite quickly), have not been prepared.

In the view of this subcommittee, priorities for specific materials can be set in terms of the foregoing. In setting these priorities there are two controlling and intersecting factors: (1) the general priority allotted to the language; (2) the general principle that materials which presuppose the existence of others for their use should await the preparation of the latter. The most glaring case of the violation of this principle is the preparation of intermediate and particularly advanced materials where no elementary materials leading to them exist.

In summing up, our committee wishes to present the following specific recommendations:

(1) The most urgent need is for a comprehensive, articulated, and effective set of materials for Hindi. This language is the one most in demand in the United States, and it is the language of access to the largest nation in South Asia. Ideally this should be done by the preparation of an entire new set of materials. However, the exigencies of the real situation may require that this be done by augmenting, revising, and filling in gaps in existing materials, and it must be noted that many of the latter are not available and thus for practical purposes do not exist. Some attention should be paid here to the development or adaptation of materials for self instruction. Needed materials include: (a) an intermediate course to take the student further from course materials now in use towards greater proficiency; (b) further intermediate and advanced readers; (c) intermediate and advanced conversational materials; (d) a comprehensive student's reference grammar; (e) a bilingual student's dictionary; and (f) such other modules as indicated by the tools-of-access committee of this Conference as being vital to a minimal set of materials for an important language.

(2) The second priority is to fill in gaps and augment materials in other national languages and major regional languages. The former we have listed at the beginning of this report, and their priorities were discussed. Regional languages were also listed and priorities were given. Priorities must include the republication of existing materials no longer available.

(3) The preparation of materials for languages where now none exist. It is difficult to establish firm priorities within this group.

Languages of Southeast Asia

R. B. Jones and Thomas Gething

This paper recommends priorities for the development of instructional materials in the following languages of Southeast Asia (national languages are marked by an asterisk):

*Burmese	Javanese	Shan
*Cambodian	Kachin	*Tagalog
Ilokano	Karen	*Thai
*Indonesian/Malay	*Laotian	*Vietnamese

The paper also suggests additions to the Fife-Nielsen list of 1961.

The following are specifications for some of the materials needed:

Basic spoken language course:

1. Assumes no background;
2. Is designed for college or university student use;
3. Is designed for a course of approximately 150 live contact hours;
4. Teaches all of the phonological structures;
5. Teaches all of the core morpho-syntactic patterns;
6. Teaches vocabulary equivalent to approximately FSI proficiency level S-1.

Continuation of spoken language course:

1. Presupposes mastery of the basic course;
2. Is designed for college or university student use;
3. Is designed for a course of approximately 150 live contact hours;
4. Teaches all of the morpho-syntactic patterns;
5. Teaches vocabulary equivalent to approximately FSI proficiency level S-2+.

Introductory reader:

1. Presupposes mastery of the basic spoken course;

2. Is designed for college or university student use;

3. Is designed for a course of approximately 90 live contact hours;

4. Approximately one-third of the material consists of graded selections designed to reinforce and extend student mastery of vocabulary and grammatical constructions of the basic course;

5. Approximately two-thirds of the selections are taken from standard vernacular works on topics covering social scierces and humanities, including newspaper writings;

6. Includes grammatical notes and vocabulary for each lesson;

7. Includes questions on each selection or suggested discussion topics to reinforce these three items: (a) vocabulary, (b) grammar, (c) content.

Advanced or special reader:

1. Presupposes mastery of the introductory reader;

2. Is designed for college or university student use;

3. Is designed for a course of approximately 90 live contact hours;

4. Includes subject matter on a particular specialized topic or topics;

5. Includes grammatical notes and vocabulary for each lesson;

6. Includes a cumulative glossary at the end of the volume.

Audio-visual materials should include the following:

1. Recorded tapes geared to the spoken language courses;

2. Color still photographs of a general enough nature to be useful at all levels of both spoken and written material;

3. Video tape geared mainly to the spoken courses, emphasizing such things as non-verbal communication.

Key to Chart

1 = highest priority
7 = lowest priority
r = revision (or replacement) of existing resource

a = including Kawi/Jawi
b = including demotic
c = English-Target language

PRIORITIES FOR LANGUAGES OF SOUTHEAST ASIA

	Basic Spoken Course	Continuation of Spoken Course	Introductory Reader	Advanced Reader	Student Ref. Grammar [Spoken & Lit. lg.]	Student Dictionary	Audio-Visual Aids
National languages							
Burmese	7	5	4r	6	2	3	1
Cambodian		2				3c	1
Indonesian/Malay		4	2	3	5[2]	6r	1
Laotian			4	5	2	3	1
Tagalog		4	3	5		2	1
Thai		3	2	5		4c	1
Vietnamese		2			3b		
Regional languages							
Ilokano		3	2	4		1	
Javanese			2		1		
Kachin	2				3	1	
Karen	2				3	1	
Shan	2				3	1	

ADDITIONS TO THE FIFE-NIELSEN LIST

Languages of major regional or cultural significance:	Other languages to be considered:
Karen, Kachin, Chin	Akha, Lahu, Lisu
Shan, Kammyang	Meo, Yao
Mon	Muong, Bahnar, Stieng, Khmu, Sre, Raglai, Jarai, Chrau
	Cham Achinese, Batak, Buginese, Balinese, Makassarese, Menangkabau, Madurese
Ilokano, Cebuano	Hiligaynon
(delete: Visayan)	

We also recommend that the East Asia list be modified to add:

Swatow Amoy Foochow	Hakka

Uralic-Altaic and Inner Asian Languages

John R. Krueger

Redefinition of the Basic Tools of Access

Many of the language and linguistic books prepared under previous projects were geared to an intensive course with 15 or more contact hours per week, and aimed at teaching students to speak that language. Circumstances have now changed, and so have our goals. Few universities today would wish to offer intensive courses in such "exotic" languages, but were they to do so, the books for them are now available, thanks to these prior projects.

What is needed today are not Basic Courses, but solid reference works, such as detailed grammars, full-scale dictionaries, and readers that embrace a wide range of literature; in other words, high-level basic linguistic tools, to be used by small classes, or by individuals working on their own. There is an urgent need for bibliographies which can guide those interested towards the tools they require, and a need for more sophisticated works focused on the basic, background issues of Uralic-Altaic and Inner Asian linguistics. The existence of such tools would ensure the maintenance of a minimum but high-level national preparedness in any or all of the Uralic and Altaic languages, and in Tibetan.

The Tools of Access

MANUAL: A student's one-volume self-contained treatise, giving area information, basic grammar (phonology, morphology, syntax), with some reading selections and a glossary to them as a sort of mini-dictionary.

REFERENCE GRAMMAR: A comprehensive scholar's and linguist's reference tool covering the history and formation of the language, with detailed sections on sounds, forms, processes, etc.

READER: A moderate to extensive sampling of modern materials, graded in difficulty and with explanatory notes, incorporating a full glossary.

DICTIONARIES: Student's: A medium-sized work of 4 to 6 thousand entries to cover material needed in the first and second years. Reference: A full-scale usage dictionary (not just a word list of equations), probably including at least 10,000 entries, for use by all levels, including scholars.

BIBLIOGRAPHIES: With a thorough knowledge of works done in the past, both good and bad, one can avoid duplication and repetition when composing new works. A well-organized bibliography, with proper headings and explanations, and transitions, can be a learning aid of much value. These should be created for all the major linguistic groups of Altaic.

Linguistic Areas for Development of Priority Language Materials

URALIC
- Finnish
- Estonian
- Hungarian
- Finno-Ugric languages of the USSR (Cheremis, Mordvin, etc.)

ALTAIC
- Turkish of the Republic of Turkey
- Non-USSR Turkic: Iran, Balkans, Afghanistan, CPR
- Turkic languages of the USSR
- General and reference works for Turkic
- Mongolian of the MPR
- Non-MPR Mongolian: in the USSR, the CPR, in Afghanistan
- General and reference works for Mongolian
- Tungusic materials

TIBETAN
- Recommended items

URALIC RECOMMENDATIONS

Priority A

Uralic Bibliography: A comprehensive linguistic bibliography evaluating old and new works in the area; basic reference tool.

Hungarian Reference Grammar.

Hungarian Literary Reader: (The brief work by John Lotz dates from 1938 and is quite incomplete.)

Priority B

Mordvin Reference Grammar: Mordvin Dictionary: Mordvin Reader.

Uralic Reader: To give samples of each Uralic language, suitable for analysis; an essential for a basic, introductory course in Uralic linguistics.

English to Finno-Ugric vocabularies by semantic categories: A tool for access to shared vocabulary items.

Estonian Etymological Dictionary: A full-scale treatment of the entire range of the Estonian language.

ALTAIC RECOMMENDATIONS

GENERAL WORKS

Priority A

Altaic Bibliography: Comprehensive listing of articles, books and materials, alphabetically by author, with indications of holding library in the U.S. Can be compiled from the separate classified bibliographical items proposed below.

Ethnonymic Dictionary of Altaic Tribal Names: A basic tool for historical and linguistic research. Many important early tribal names are still found in surprising parts of the Altaic world. Study of these transferences will cast light on Altaic linguistic situations.

Altaic Reader: To give samples of each Altaic language, to serve as material for analysis; an essential instructional tool for the basic study of Altaic linguistics.

Comparative Altaic Morphology: A high-level scholarly work is envisaged.

Priority B

Altaic Language Names: An alphabetical listing of current and historical Altaic language names, to be a sort of handbook, with data on census, literacy, language allegiance, bilingualism, and geopolitical data.

Problem of genetic relationship vs. contact relationship in the Altaic group.

Priority C

The creation of literary languages and problems of their standardization, for Altaic peoples, whether in USSR, CPR, etc.

Linguistic inter-relationships in connection with the Altaic genetic theory, as between Mongolian-Turkic, or between Mongolian-Tunguz.

Comparative Altaic Phonology: (The work on this topic by N. Poppe is now over 15 years old and is in German).

Influence of outside languages on Altaic languages, as Russian upon Altaic literary languages as a result of Soviet linguistic policy; influence of Chinese upon Altaic languages in the CPR, etc.

Influences of literary languages upon dialects, e.g., the leveling effect of literary language upon dialects, with examples drawn from Altaic languages.

TURKISH OF THE REPUBLIC OF TURKEY

Priority A

Ottoman Reader: To enable people to read texts written prior to 1928.

Improved basic course, expanded and revised from the FSI course.

Priority B

Turkisk dialects in Anatolia and the Balkans.

Dialect atlas of Turkish dialects in Turkey; combined with, or separately, dialect description project; a dictionary of Turkish dialects.

(1) A first-year course text* suitable for university classes meeting 4-5

*Submitted by Professor Kathleen Burill of Columbia University.

hours per week, with accompanying tapes for 1-2 additional hours language laboratory work. The material should be presented in such a way as to not overwhelm the general student with linguistic terms and explanations. Dialogues should be suited to young scholars rather than to general tourists, and in addition to day-to-day living might cover such pursuits as going to a library, a museum, visiting a university, discussing one's educational program, etc. Narratives and exercises should be prepared with special thought to the need for a student to increase his vocabulary in an orderly but speedy manner, and to be able to comprehend at a glance the construction of a long Turkish sentence.

(2) A second-year course text* presenting graded reading and some treatment of the grammar that would carry on the student's linguistic development in an orderly manner.

(3) A first-year course text* coordinated with tapes and/or video tapes designed for self-instruction.

(4) Readers* for specialist groups, such as archaeology, art history, business administration majors.

(5) Some phrase or conversation books* designed specifically for specialist groups (e.g., as in 4 above).

NON-USSR TURKIC: IRAN, BALKANS, AFGHANISTAN, CPR

Priority A

The Turkic languages of China.

Manual of East Turki.

Priority B

The Turkic languages of Iran and Afghanistan.

A dialect atlas of Turkic languages in Iran and Afghanistan (together with, or separately, a dialect description project and dictionary).

East Turki Reference Grammar.

East Turki Reader.

East Turki Dictionary.

Priority C

Manuals for: Lobnor Turkic, Salar, Saryg Uighur.

TURKIC LANGUAGES OF THE USSR (Union Republics)

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*Submitted by Professor Kathleen Burill of Columbia University.

Priority A

Uzbek Dictionary.

Kirghiz Reference Grammar.

Priority B

Manual of Kazakh.

Kazakh Reference Grammar.

Kazakh Reader.

Manual of Azerbaidzhani.

Azerbaidzhani Reader.

Azerbaidzhani Reference Grammar.

Azerbaidzhani Dictionary.

Manual of Turkmen.

Turkmen Reference Grammar.

Turkmen Reader.

Turkmen Dictionary.

Kirghiz Reader.

Kirghiz Dictionary.

TURKIC LANGUAGES OF THE USSR (Autonomous Republics)

Priority A.

Manual of Tuvan.

Priority B

Manual of Karakalpak.

Reference Grammar/Reader/Dictionary for:

Karakalpak
Tuvan
Tatar
Bashkir
Chulvash
Yakut

Priority C

Manuals for:

Gagauz (Moldavia and Ukraine)
Kumyk (Dagestan)
Karachay-Balkar (Karachay-Cherkesk AO)
Nogay (Dagestan; Stavropolsk Kray)
Altai (Gorno-Altai AO)
Khakass (Khakass AO)

GENERAL AND REFERENCE WORKS FOR TURKIC; THEORETICAL WORKS; SPECIFICS

Priority A

Bibliographical guide to Turkic linguistics.

Turkic Reader: Giving samples of each Turkic language with a view to analysis, as an essential study aid in introductory Turkic linguistics.

Comparative Turkic morphology: Furnishing a key to all Turkic languages, incorporating study of word formation, treatment of verb, etc.

Priority B

English to Turkic vocabularies by semantic groupings; enables comparative study by logical categories of culture and objects.

Early European sources of the Modern Turkic languages: texts, wordlists and dictionaries of the 17-18th centuries.

Priority C

Problems in sub-stratum linguistics: Samoyed and Yenisei linguistic vestiges in South Siberian Turkic languages.

Problems in structural influence: Effect of Persian syntax on Turkic syntax.

MONGOLIAN OF THE MPR

Priority A

Modern (Cyrillic) Mongolian-English Dictionary: A large-scale dictionary for contemporary social, political and technical usage is badly needed. Plans are under way to launch a joint cooperative effort among Indiana, Germany and the MPR Academy.

Student's Mongolian-English Dictionary: A shorter work for use by students during the first two years of study.

Priority B

Written Mongolian Reader. (Use of the old script is still quite widespread in the MPR, and there are numerous books and much material in vertical script written in the 20th century.)

Priority C

The creation of Literary Khalkha and problems of its standardization.

NON-MPR MONGOLIAN: IN THE USSR, THE CPR, IN AFGHANISTAN, OVERSEAS

Priority A

Literary Oirat-Mongolian Dictionary. (Although this script was abandoned in the USSR, Kalmyk Republic, about 1924, materials are still printed in it in the CPR.)

Priority B

Buryat-Mongolian: Reference Grammar/Reader/Dictionary.

Kalmyk-Mongolian: Reference Grammar/Reader/Dictionary.

The Mongolian dialects of Afghanistan, together with a dialect atlas of Mongolian dialects in Afghanistan; dictionary of Afghanistan Mongolian.

Priority C

The creation of Literary Buryat and problems of its standardization.

The creation of Literary Kalmyk and problems of its standardization.

GENERAL AND REFERENCE WORKS FOR MONGOLIAN

Priority A

Bibliography of Mongolian linguistics with evaluation of works.

Priority B

The Mongolian languages and dialects of the MPR.

A comparative dictionary of the Mongolian languages.

Early European sources of the Modern Mongolian vocabulary: texts, wordlists and dictionaries of the 17-18th centuries.

Comparative Mongolian morphology (incorporating studies in word formation, the Mongolian verb, etc.)

TUNGSIC MATERIALS

Priority A

Reference Grammar of Manchu (still spoken in CPR).

Reader of Literary Manchu.

Bibliographical guide to Tunguz linguistics.

Priority B

An introduction to the Tunguz languages.

Comparative Tunguz morphology (including word formation, Tunguz verb, etc.)

Manuals, Reference Grammars, Dictionaries, and Readers, when proposed by properly qualified researchers, for such Tungusic languages as: Even, Evenki, Nanay, Ulcha, Orok, Oroch, Udehe.

Early European sources of Modern Tunguz languages: texts, wordlists and dictionaries of the 17-18th centuries.

TIBETAN

Priority A

Tibetan-English literary dictionary with references to sources.

Reference Grammar of Literary Tibetan.

Priority B

Literary Tibetan Reader.

Reader for Tibetan Oral literature.

ADDITIONS TO THE FIFE-NIELSEN LIST

Languages of major regional or cultural significance:

Tatar
Manchu

Other languages to be considered:

Turan
Salar
Saryg Uighur
Lobnor-Turkic
Karakalpak
Gagauz
Kumyk
Karachay-Balkar
Nogay
Altai
Khakass

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